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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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EDUCATORS' RESPONSIBILITY TO EDUCATION

THE YEAR 1950-51 was a sad one indeed for American education. False attacks by collusive groups against our public schools were felt and, in only a few instances, shown up in their true light. Among narcotic addicts in certain of our large urban centers high-school gangs were discovered. The over-optimistic predictions of the 1947 Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, concerning what should be the ever increasing expansion of enrolments in our secondary and collegiate institutions, were contradicted by a decreased registration of students. The scandals in collegiate athletics added a sorrowful note to a year that makes all serious-minded and conscientious educators do some soul-searching.

The lay press has not dealt kindly with some of the aspects of our troubles in education. Nor should they

do so. Our high-school graduates who continue in higher education for purposes other than education reflect adversely upon the kinds of stimulation which influence them and upon the sense of values which such students have developed. The editorial which appeared in *Life* magazine of September 17, 1951, on "Football Is a Farce" and the one in the *Saturday Evening Post* for September 8, 1951, termed "Maybe It Takes a Cribbing Scandal To Deflate Sports," cannot be dismissed lightly. No matter how we educators react, the indictments stand for what they are. Most certainly, educators deserve credit for a variety of fine things, but frequently the credit is not forthcoming. Equally certain is it that our schools and colleges are part of a social matrix over which educators have little, if any, control. Yet we cannot abdicate our responsibilities as stated or implied by these two editorials. At least, it is a good time to pause—but not for refreshment.

Neither space nor occasion permits of quoting these editorials completely. The following paragraphs are typical of their indictments. From *Life* magazine:

The young men and women are going back to college, which means that the silly season is just about upon us. In fact the football players have been on the campus for quite some time preparing for the 1951 edition of the annual fraud. Gathered at great pain and expense from the best high-school teams, in some cases fattened up by a year of postgraduate leisure at some prep school while gaining height, weight, and maturity, they have been earning their pay by doing push-ups and having a go at the tackling dummies. This week, or next, they will start putting on their show. Just what entertainment value the show has is doubtful. . . .

Yet many of the colleges still seem to consider football their No. 1 contribution to the U.S. One might have thought, after the basketball fix scandals of last winter and the West Point cribbing scandal of the summer, that the colleges would have learned their lesson—and that athletics would be coming in for a little healthy de-emphasis. But right now the only real argument in academic circles is over the television rights. If anything, football is going to be bigger and more expensive than ever this fall.

What were the lessons of the past year's scandals? For all the pious moralizing that has gone on, the lessons are very plain and not very pretty. . . .

It simply proves that the average young man who is being bribed by a college to go out and win games sees very little difference in being bribed by somebody else to go out and fix the games. It also proves that at least a number of college coaches have been much less competent or much more callous than their salaries and speeches would indicate. A coach whose players are "dumping" one game after another, but who then pleads tearful surprise when the policemen tell him

the sad news, must have been either very stupid or very busy looking the other way. . . .

A college president who is sorting out his contracts for high-school football prospects with one hand, and selling tickets to the stadium with the other, can never keep our faith. For that sort of thing we can find men like the late Tex Rickard, or the promoter of the roller derby.

Of course the college president will say that he doesn't really sell the tickets—that in fact he has nothing whatever to do with football. Maybe not, Mr. President, but someone is certainly committing the crime in your name. In fact your football team is violating all the ethics that you are trying to teach in your classrooms. Whether you are an active conniver in this fraud or just the victim of a camel under the tent you appear equally guilty to any casual bystander.

Better forget about those stadium bonds and start worrying about your real franchise in American life.

The *Saturday Evening Post* editorial states in part:

As usual, the professionalism of American college athletics plays a disheartening role in this affair. Since colleges have permitted football to fall into the hands of sports writers, gamblers, permanent sophomores among the alumni, and the box office, the performance on the field has to approach technical perfection. No coach can meet the requirements of the commentators, the pool operators, and the frenzied idiots in the graduate clubs if he has to rely on intellectuals. Even a Phi Beta Kappa man with big hands would find it difficult to keep up his grades and meet the time demands of the coaching staff. Hence, subsidized bully boys, cramming schools, and finally actual cheating. It is trite to say, "We are all in this," because, after all, the West Point cadet has a special privilege and a special responsibility. But the rest of us can't duck all the responsibility. We wanted that

team to win, didn't we, and no questions asked? . . .

Perhaps not much will happen in spite of all the current soul-searching, but maybe there will be some slight movement in the direction of sanity. The honor system does seem a little hard to enforce on boys who are expected to take the place of race horses every Saturday afternoon.

Part of our trouble in educational institutions is that we expect somebody else to take the initiative. The rank and file say that the board of education or the trustees should declare definite policies. Those in administrative charge feel that educational practices are in the hands of the educational practitioners. In the meantime, all of us have been educated to talk better than we endeavor to live. Our speeches on education are made to sound excellent—so excellent, as a matter of fact, that the public is forever being shocked at any limitations in our products.

During periods of emergency, for example, when the nation takes stock of the physical and mental status of youth, concern is expressed by the press because of the "alarming" number of youth unable to meet minimum physical and mental requirements set by the army, navy, or any other agency of government or industry with definitely established standards of measurement or evaluation. But these discoveries typically come from outside agencies—such as Selective Service, or, in the case of dishonesty or perversion, from the press—and far too seldom from the schools or colleges themselves.

In order to recapture the public's high esteem for education, educators must, first and foremost, be honest. Let the school people admit that there is room for improvement in both the curriculum and the extra-curriculum, but let them point out that the schools are not the only institutions which influence youth. If the "coaching" of teams has usurped the energies which should more justifiably go into physical education, let the superintendent and the members of the physical-education department tell the school board and the community what is happening, and, at the same time, promote a sound program of physical education for all the students.

When attacks are made on the school, let the administrators and the teachers co-operate with critics, if they are sincere, in a joint effort to make improvements. Let the school and the community, together, look at the strains placed on youth in these times and, together, work out school programs and community programs that will, as far as may be possible, reassure youth about their future and meet their needs today. Thus, there will be less reason for the young people to resort to narcotics in misguided efforts to escape from their problems; there will be less tendency for them to indulge in dishonest practices to satisfy adults who demand good marks and winning teams. In addition, the public effort which is often dissipated in attacks on the schools would be used, instead, to advance the schools.

HOME AND SCHOOL RELATIONS

THE EDUCATOR dealing with children or youth is never in complete command of the situation. He acts as a representative of only one of a number of social institutions. His effectiveness is based in part upon his vision and practices in his own area and in part upon co-ordinating his efforts with those of others in the community, who likewise have an interest and responsibility in the development of children and youth.

Co-ordination is especially essential in the case of home and school relations. Attention is drawn to this fact by F. B. Decker, state superintendent of public instruction of Nebraska, in a statement "Let's Strike a Balance" in the September 21, 1951, issue of *Nebraska Education News*:

"It seems that there has to be something going on after school every night of the week," I have heard irate parents say. "Our children hardly get home in time for supper and then they turn right around after they have eaten and run back to the schoolhouse for play practice or some other thing."

It's true. Many parents have a serious and just concern in this regard. Without careful planning, the so-called extra-curricular program can really become top-heavy, out of balance, out of reason, and, consequently, something of a menace. All of us realize the contributions which such activities as athletics, glee club, and dramatics, when they are well conducted, may make to the development of boys and girls. But we know, too, that common sense would order in these activities the moderation and balance which is needed to prevent them from encroaching upon matters more fundamental to the development of youth.

First of all, many of us school people need occasionally to remind ourselves that the home is, by its very nature, an even more basic training ground for citizenship than the school ever was or will be. As we say in the social-studies program, it is in the home where young people must first learn to accept responsibility, acquire respect for authority, and share with others. It's plain and simple truth that we unwittingly foster a sort of decay and disintegration of this basic unit of society when we permit social or athletic activities in a school to claim so much of the student's time that the precious communion of home life is disturbed or even destroyed.

The parents' first duty is to the upbringing of their children and the school's first duty is to assist or supplement the parents in this effort. Certainly, the school acts as a negative influence rather than a positive one in this regard when extra-curricular activities set such a fast pace that Junior leaves the chores for Dad to do, and Daughter comes to think that it's only right for Mother to prepare the meals and do the dishes unassisted by her. It is a serious state of affairs when the home comes to be, not a place for working together, performing the duties natural to a family group, and sharing in simple home joys, but rather a place in which to enjoy special privileges and give little of one's self in return.

A recent experiment which included parents in the counseling of pupils presents an excellent example of the effort upon the part of schools to co-ordinate one of the school functions with the home. The study was carried on at the Niles Township Community High School in Skokie, Illinois, with a group of Sophomore students and their parents. The experiment involved four main steps, as reported in the May, 1951, issue of *Occupations*:

1. Gathering preliminary information about each student counseled.

2. Conducting a parent-student-counselor conference for each member of the Sophomore class.

3. Evaluating each three-way conference by means of immediate post-counseling evaluations.

4. Evaluating the counseling by means of comparing a counseled with an uncounseled group.

The value of this three-way counseling experiment is summarized by the writer of this article, A. H. Ryden, as follows:

On every criterion listed, the majority of students and parents rated the conference as "very helpful," and over 80 per cent of them rated the conference as "very helpful" when viewed as a whole.

Student, parent, and counselor evaluations all indicated that the conference was of greatest value in promoting a better understanding of the student's make-up—his interests, his abilities, and his personality. This finding was substantiated in the voluntary comments made at the bottom of the evaluation sheets.

One-half of the parents and one-third of the students were enthusiastic enough about the three-way conference to add their own free-will comments.

The most frequently mentioned criticism of this type of conference was that the time allotted was too short.

The conference tended to be more highly rated in these cases:

a) Cases in which the student was already making a fairly successful adjustment in his school work and to life in general.

b) Cases in which the student was already doing considerable thinking about his long-term vocational future.

c) Cases in which the student was ambitious for further education beyond high school.

Parents who seemed to be most closely in agreement with the test findings pertaining to their child were more appreciative of the value of such a three-way conference than were those parents whose estimates of their child's interests and aptitudes seemed to be least in agreement with the test findings.

EARLY SCHOOL LEAVERS

THE PROBLEM of early school leavers is another pressing reason for fuller co-operation between school and home. The lure of nonagricultural jobs during the period of accelerated production of war materials has already increased, and will tend to increase further, the numbers of those leaving the secondary schools before they are graduated.

Number of drop-outs According to the National Child Labor Committee, the number of sixteen- and seventeen-year-olds engaged in nonagricultural full-time and part-time employment increased 31.3 per cent from March, 1950, to March, 1951. The report of the National Child Labor Committee is presented in the April, 1951, issue of the *American Child*. The following statements are from this report:

Concerned about this rise in teen-age employment, especially since it had received a few scattered reports that high-school drop-outs were increasing, the National Child Labor Committee sought to find out whether the figures reflected primarily part-time work or whether there had been a noticeable increase in children leaving school for full-time jobs (a differentiation the Census count does not reveal).

A questionnaire was sent in February to school superintendents in 226 cities inquiring about the situation in their communities. This included practically all cities over 50,000 and a few smaller cities in low population states.

Replies were received from 137 cities in 43 states. In some cities a separate answer was sent for each school, making a total of 198 replies from the 137 cities.

Among the 198 replies, slightly over half (100) reported a noticeable increase in the number of students dropping out of school. Forty-nine stated that this began last fall [1950], and 15 of these reported it had become more marked since Christmas; 38 reported that it had started since Christmas; 13 did not reply on this point.

A number commented that it was not yet "serious" or "alarming." On the other hand, among those who reported there had been no increase, several stated they believed they would have had many more drop-outs if they had not instituted special measures to counteract the trend last fall. Others expressed a fear that the rate would increase as job opportunities opened up. A statistical picture of the situation could not be expected in the middle of the school year, but a few cities sent figures such as the following:

A midwestern city reported that in 10 senior high schools with an enrolment of approximately 9,700, the loss for the four-month period, October, 1950, through January, 1951, was 269; during the same period of 1948-49 it had been 187.

A small city in an eastern seaboard state reported 17 drop-outs among boys in December-January, 1949-50, and 32 in December-January, 1950-51.

A midwest city reported 620 drop-outs this year compared with 500 last year.

The increase in school leaving was most marked among boys though girls were by no means absent from the picture. In the 85 replies on this point, 49 said that the increase was primarily among boys, 4 that it

was primarily among girls, and 32 that it was the same for both. The ages at which the increase in school leaving was most marked, mentioned with greatest frequency, were sixteen and seventeen years. The grades most frequently mentioned in this connection were the tenth and eleventh.

Identifying potential drop-outs The problem of pupils dropping out of school too early for their own good and for society's good is not limited to the United States. The Canadian Research Committee on Practical Education recently made a report which is entitled "Two Years after School" and which is digested in the June, 1951, issue of the *School Guidance Worker* (published by the Vocational Guidance Center, Ontario College of Education, University of Toronto) from the original article in the *Financial Post*. The present writer looks forward to reading the original report but feels that, in the meantime, some of the quoted observations are of sufficient insight to warrant directing attention to them now. One problem in which all of us are interested is how to identify the probable drop-out before he has left school. The drop-out symptoms, according to the observations of this report, are:

1. Retardation [or] repetition of grades, whether the result of illness or failure, particularly if more than one year.
2. General ability which places a pupil in the lowest fifth of the class.
3. Nonparticipation in recreation.
4. No part-time jobs.
5. Economic status of family which places a pupil in lowest fifth of the class.

Less important factors are:

1. Size of community if population less than 10,000.
2. Father's occupation. Early drop-outs are more often children of semiskilled or unskilled workers, or farmers.
3. No hobby.

The general observations are also interesting:

By looking for these factors, the committee hopes teachers will be able to keep their eye on potential drop-outs. A combination of 1 and 2, with one of 3 to 5 makes a pupil a very likely early drop-out. A combination of 1 or 2 with two or more of 3 to 5 has also been discovered significant.

Former pupils suggest that schools can give more help to discovering aptitude and uncovering abilities. Teachers, parents, and pupils must bend all effort to discovering aptitudes and fitting the course to the pupil and the pupil to the course, the committee urges.

PTA helps reduce rate of leaving The problem of having young people continue in secondary school until graduation is not one involving only teachers and school administrators. The parents, too, need to be alerted to the problem and encouraged to aid in its solution, not alone to decrease the number of drop-outs, but also to reclaim some who have already left school. A significant program having to do with this matter is described in the May, 1951, *Minnesota Journal of Education* by Margaret E. Andrews, consultant in work experience and placement in the Minneapolis public schools. Miss Andrews reports:

Each September all schools face the same problem—the problem of students who were

in school in June but who failed to return in September. . . .

This problem is an urgent one. If a follow-up is not begun immediately, students will have lost too much time to make it feasible for them to return. On the other hand, the first few weeks in the fall are the busiest for all school personnel, and such a follow-up takes time. Therefore, outside help must be sought—and the PTA can provide that help, Minneapolis found. For a number of years a PTA committee has been set up in each high school in Minneapolis to assist the school in that district in its follow-up of drop-outs. A meeting with the committee is called early in August so the plan can be explained. . . .

By September 21 last year, the final report on the 683 students who had been in school in June but who had failed to return in September was completed. This report showed that 371 had withdrawn for reasons which seemed "valid" or which were beyond the control of the school—they left the city, transferred to private or parochial schools, entered the armed forces, were married, or graduated from summer school. The remaining 312, however, were out for reasons which seemed "questionable" and which the school felt needed further follow-up—they were working, seeking work, or at home. . . .

Surveys similar to this were made in 1943, 1944, and 1945—all war years—and each year showed drop-outs were declining. Undoubtedly, the "Back-to-School" campaigns had an effect on this. A 1949 study showed a continuing decline. This probably reflected the "Back-to-School" campaign plus the tightened job market. Perhaps, too, improved teaching methods and better courses of study have helped.

In 1943 there was an 11 per cent drop-out in Minneapolis. By 1949 it had dropped to 4 per cent. This last year it was up to 4.57. Although this is a small increase, it does show how quickly the war and the better job market have an effect—and how

important renewed effort on a community-wide basis will be in coming years.

This kind of procedure not only reclaims drop-outs, a result which in itself justifies the effort, but also educates parents to one of the important problems of today.

The reasons for leaving school Reports on the reasons why young people desire to leave school should contribute much worthwhile information and insight to administrators who genuinely desire to have all students who can do so remain in school until graduation, even if this necessitates changing the school's practices to meet more adequately the individual needs of "all the children of all the people."

The study of former students provides valuable data for measuring school success. Writing in the *High School Journal* for April, 1951 (published by the School of Education, University of North Carolina), Professor Ruth E. Eckert, of the University of Minnesota, indicates:

[Follow-up] studies are usually undertaken with the primary aim of improving the school program. By viewing current offerings in the light of students' later responsibilities, it is often possible to identify specific areas for improvement and to project new services to meet better these demonstrated needs.

Such studies have other important values, too. They help to cultivate a "student personnel" point of view on the part of all staff members, interesting many who would steer clear of abstract discussions of educational problems. The better-designed studies likewise foster self-evaluation and

continued growth on the part of former students by encouraging them to take intelligent stock of their achievements. Demonstration that institutional concern does not cease when students leave school also contributes to sound public relations.

Youth are frustrated The expansion of curriculum offerings, though designed to care for the interests and needs of individual youth, may confuse rather than aid many young people unless full and proper guidance is given them. Thus, our attempts to prevent drop-outs may, in some instances, actually have caused them. Frustration in school can be caused by a multiplicity of offerings which are inadequately interpreted to students. It is comparable to the bewilderment youth feels in relation to a complicated social environment for which he is not properly oriented.

The entire problem of frustration is very well analyzed in a recent United States Office of Education publication *Frustration in Adolescent Youth: Its Development and Implications for the School Program* (Bulletin 1951, No. 1), by David Segel, specialist in tests and measurements in the Office. The concluding three paragraphs of this bulletin summarize the situation most excellently:

This analysis of the procedures for counseling frustrated youth indicates a needed change in the conception of a school. Schools have been operating on the assumption that their students are in a motivated state and that such deviations as occur can be altered by changing the outward environmental situation. If the analysis made in this bulletin is accepted, it can be seen that a new

operation is necessary at this level of schooling, that of dealing with youth in a non-motivated or frustrated state, where the process is not one of changing the environment, but one of helping individual youths to adjust. The number of frustrated youth in school is not known with exactitude, but it is known that it is large enough to warrant considerable attention by educators. If a larger percentage of youth is forced to attend school even larger proportions of frustrated youth will be in evidence.

It would appear that secondary schools should spend much more time on appraising and counseling their students. To do this, some reorganization of the school's program may be necessary. For example, one period a day might be set aside in each youth's secondary school program which could be used for all appraisal and counseling work, at least when he is thirteen or fourteen years of age. Practically, this would mean the setting-up of such a program for eighth- and ninth-grade youth. Another method would be to have each youth spend in a guidance and counseling situation a certain number of weeks per year, or irregular periods of several weeks each year, especially during the age range of thirteen and fourteen in Grades VIII and IX.

If all youth in the United States are to complete the secondary-school program, the means must be found for the avoidance of frustration. A large percentage of youth of school age now out of school and many of those in school are frustrated. The school of the future must have two procedures to do the job of universal education. One is to carry on a program of education which fits as nearly as possible both the needs of society and the needs of the individual and thus reduce the number of potentially frustrated youth. The other is to provide services which will identify and treat individuals who cannot accept such educational procedures so that they can be adjusted in the school program or be otherwise guided into situations more fruitful to them.

INTERPRETATION OF TEST RESULTS IN COUNSELING

STANDARDIZED TESTS are used in counseling to provide counselors and counselees with information attainable in no other convenient way. Standardized tests are so constructed as to provide specific norms for a specific group of individuals. A test which is valuable for a particular individual, therefore, is not necessarily applicable to another. Backgrounds of culture patterns, schooling, age, experience, and the like must be taken into account in the selection of tests and in the interpretation of the results. The counselor should never assign any test to be administered to a counselee unless there is specific justification for its use in terms of the particular counselee's problem or problems.

Before assigning a test battery, the counselor should obtain, by means of an interview or interviews and case records (scholastic, personnel files, etc.), an understanding of the counselee's background, schooling, socioeconomic status, work and other kinds of experience, and a clear concept of his particular problem. Never should the counselor depend upon a test to provide information without knowing specifically what the test is designed to measure. Furthermore, the tests selected should be fully justified in terms of the counselee's particular situation or problem.

Tests are not always needed in order to have the results available to the counselees so that they can think

through their problems. On the other hand, test results can aid materially in indicating to the counselee such things as (1) how his pattern of interests compares with the pattern of interests of successful workers in given vocations, (2) whether his intellectual capacity will permit him to profit from further schooling, (3) what are his areas of special aptitude, (4) how he has achieved in school subjects and in learning skills, and (5) whether there are any gross variations in his personality traits from those of his peers.

The counselor frequently needs assistance in interpreting profiles of test results. This type of assistance was given by John G. Darley a decade ago in his book *Clinical Aspects and Interpretation of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank*, published by the Psychological Corporation (522 Fifth Avenue, New York 18). Recently this same organization has published a comparable contribution, this time dealing with scores on the Differential Aptitude Tests. This manual was prepared by George K. Bennett, H. G. Seashore, and Alexander G. Wesman and is entitled *Counseling from Profiles: A Casebook for the Differential Aptitude Tests*.

In commenting upon this publication, the Psychological Corporation's *Test Service Bulletin* for September, 1951, states:

The reports of the thirty boys and girls, in Grades VIII through XII, were provided by the counselors in nine schools. For each one, there is a statement of the problem as it presented itself to the counselor, a record of

the results of whatever tests had been given, and a report of the counseling. To this the editors have added comments and discussion. The cases run from about two pages to five pages in length, and their complexity covers a similar range. For some, only the Differential Aptitude Test scores were available; for others, results from a variety of other educational, clinical, and guidance tests were also on record.

Some of these students are bright and successful, and some are failing. Sometimes the counselor has only the pleasant job of helping direct an able student toward an appropriate course or career; sometimes he is faced with the delicate job of deflating ambitions that seem unrealistic; sometimes the parents really are the problem and sometimes emotional or physical difficulties lie at the heart of the situation. Monotony in these cases, as in counseling itself, will be found only by those for whom other peoples' problems are a matter of no concern.

Counseling from Profiles is presented neither as a validation report nor as a comprehensive syllabus for counselor training. It simply offers a thoughtful look into the experience of counselors engaged in one important aspect of their work: test interpretation.

No matter how diligently counselors endeavor to make scientific the interpretation of test profiles nor how much professional assistance is provided, the use of standardized tests in counseling can never be reduced to a mechanical routine. William B. Schrader, who is head of the Validity Studies Section of the Statistical Analysis Department of the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, concludes his article "Making Test Scores Meaningful" in the May, 1951, *College Board Review* with an observation which, though intended specifically, can be

interpreted as having rather general implications:

Wise interpretation of test scores will never be a purely mechanical process. Nevertheless, much is being done to help test users to reach correct decisions with greater ease. The College Board standard ratings enable test users to apply their past experience with College Board tests to the results of a new series by making scores comparable from test to test and from year to year. Standard errors of measurement remind the test user to doubt the significance of small differences in test scores. Validity studies show which tests are relevant to specific prediction problems and offer ways of combining several predictors efficiently in a team. The effort devoted to making test scores meaningful, then, contributes directly by reducing errors of interpretation and indirectly by saving time for the test user. If the time thus freed is spent in weighing subtle, intangible elements in the promise of individual boys and girls, the indirect contribution of aids to score interpretation is most significant.

OTHER RECENT AIDS TO COUNSELORS

SCHOOL COUNSELORS are usually kept so busy dealing with individual pupils and organizational matters pertaining to school guidance programs that they have little time to keep up with the abundant printed matter coming off the presses. Two recent contributions are unusually ef-

fective in presenting much material in easily comprehensible fashion. One is the April, 1951, issue of the *Review of Educational Research*, which deals with "Guidance and Counseling." The other is the July, 1951, Bulletin of the California State Department of Education termed *The School Counselor: His Work and Training*. The latter publication may be ordered from the Bureau of Textbooks and Publications, State Department of Education, Sacramento 14, California, for forty cents a copy.

Busy counselors, too occupied to keep up with publications and research investigations in their field, owe much to those who have effectively summarized this material in the field of guidance and counseling, for the period November, 1947, through September, 1950, in the *Review of Educational Research*. This issue can be obtained from the American Educational Research Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C., for \$1.50. The contributors to this excellent volume have done much to bring literature and research findings to counselors, who can use such material yet who are in no position to gather it themselves.

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

WHO'S WHO FOR DECEMBER

Authors of news notes and articles by ROBERT C. WOELL-

ner, associate professor of education, assistant dean of students, and director of vocational guidance and placement at the University of Chicago. WILLIAM CLARK TROW, professor of educational psychology at the University of Michigan, correlates ethical behavior with various methods of teaching morals and ethics, showing that direct teaching in these areas has little effect on behavior. He suggests a new objective for moral teaching and some ways of achieving the desired ends. HELEN IRENE DRIVER, counselor in the Student Counseling Center at the University of Wisconsin, describes the multiple-counseling method of guidance used in a high-school project and the success it achieved. FANNIE C. HUNN, formerly a faculty member in the English and Rural Departments of Wisconsin State College, Eau Claire, Wisconsin, points out the necessity of developing, in the elementary school, reading and study skills that will help students read and understand high-school subject matter. GEORGE KALUGER, director of guidance at Butler Junior High School in Butler, Pennsylvania, explores the socioeconomic backgrounds and home environments of students entering fourteen state teachers' colleges in Pennsylvania. HENRY M.

BRICKELL, now a graduate student at Teachers College, Columbia University, taught English at Bloom Township High School in Chicago Heights, Illinois, during his membership on the committee he describes. He tells how a salary research committee composed of faculty members gathered information on salary schedules, educated teachers about needed salary increases, presented recommendations to the board of education, and finally achieved some salary adjustments. NORMAN BURNS, associate professor of education at the University of Chicago, and MANNING M. PATILLO, JR., instructor in the Department of Education at the University of Chicago and associate secretary of the Commission on Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, present a list of selected references on higher education.

Reviewers of books CLAYTON M. GJERDE, assistant professor of education at San Diego State College, San Diego, California. J. D. LOGSDON, principal of the Shorewood High School, Shorewood, Wisconsin. WILLIAM E. HENRY, associate professor of psychology at the University of Chicago. KENNETH V. LOTTICK, associate professor of education and director of apprenticeship at Willamette University, Salem, Oregon.

HOW SHALL WE TEACH ETHICS?

WILLIAM CLARK TROW

University of Michigan



FIVE YEARS AGO two educational conferences were held which the writer attended. One was in Ann Arbor, Michigan, the other in Tokyo, Japan. At both conferences, next steps in education were being discussed. At the Ann Arbor meeting, one of the members of the panel, a practical school man, was asked: "What do you consider to be the chief objective of elementary education?" His answer was prompt, "To teach the fundamental processes." At the Tokyo meeting, one of the Japanese educators asked the representatives of the United States Education Mission, "How shall we teach ethics?" The reply was not so prompt.

During the intervening five years the American people have come to recognize the importance of other educational objectives than facility in the fundamental processes, important as these are. We, too, with the facts of individual maladjustment, juvenile delinquency, and organized crime before us, are beginning to realize that it is not enough to teach children to read and spell, to add and subtract. Before the war the Japanese had taught ethics very effectively, but it

was the ethics of obedience to family, clan, and emperor. Could we tell them what to put in place of the forbidden *Shushin*? How shall we teach ethics?

SPIRITUAL VALUES

Most of the answers seem to relate to one or the other of two words, "spiritual" and "moral." During the past few years, when the writer has heard these words bandied about by critics of our public school system, he has asked the speakers what they mean by these terms. This question, it should be added parenthetically, is not effective in making friends and influencing people. It usually reveals to the speakers either that they do not know what they are talking about or that they have a very narrow and sometimes a definitely sectarian concept of the terms they are employing. As a matter of fact, each word has more than one correct meaning. It is an enlightening experience to read and ponder the several meanings of these two words as they are given in an unabridged dictionary.

For many, the term "spiritual" is definitely theological. It pertains to the ideas, beliefs, and faiths of re-

ligious and sectarian groups with respect to the Deity, the supernatural, life after death, etc. It is practically synonymous with the word "religious," and is supported by those who believe that Bible-reading and other forms of religious worship should be included in the public school program. Such rites and ceremonies presumably become a means to some end. To the extent that this end is indoctrination in the beliefs of one or another religious group, we seem fairly well agreed that it has no proper place in the public schools. To the extent that this end is the improvement of the life adjustment of the pupils, it should be considered. What is the evidence to show that religious studies help in pupils' life adjustment?

Besides the dubious value of the testimonial, the evidence is difficult to find. Only slight correlation has been found between knowledge of the Bible and good conduct (8). The per cent of inmates of prisons and reformatories who were church members and who expressed church preferences has been found to be higher than that of people outside such institutions (14). The correlation of moral conduct with church and Sunday-school membership and attendance has been found to be low (5:356-67, 368-75). Total church membership has shown a low negative correlation with an index of the characteristics which make a city good to live in and with an index involving certain qualities of intelligence, morality, and devotion to the home. Also, communities

with the largest percentage of church members were below average in good reading, home ownership, and continuance in school and had more than their share of illiterates and child labor. There was, however, a low negative correlation between church membership and homicide, deaths from venereal diseases, and illegitimate births. Church membership thus seems to be more related to certain phases of traditional morality than to the broader aspects of social values (16:183-205, 17:96-100).

From such results as these, one can but conclude that spiritual values in the sense of religious instruction, as now carried on, have little, if any, relation to many aspects of desirable social adjustment.

MORAL VALUES

The word "moral" also has more than one meaning, but generally it is applied to conduct in harmony with the social standards of a particular group, especially when, for one reason or another, such conduct is difficult to practice. The standards may be derived from religious or nonsectarian sources or from both. Different religious, cultural, and class groups hold to differing standards, as is well known. However, in any one society there are large areas of agreement. How effective have been the educational schemes employed to improve the morality, sometimes referred to as the "character," of the school population?

Twenty years ago the children in a

certain community received an efficiency certificate in a junior high school citizenship program. The investigator found little or nothing in their subsequent careers to distinguish the winners from the non-winners (1). Low correlation has been found between moral conduct and moral knowledge. There is, for example, no evidence that the study of biography or the length of time in school influences character. Children have been found to score higher in dishonesty the longer they had been participants in a once much publicized character-education program (5:356-75, 6).

From such studies as these, too, one can but conclude that moral values as commonly taught have little, if any, relation to desirable social adjustment. The implication is that among all the influences brought to bear on the life of a child, moral instruction of the kinds studied is not sufficient, by itself, to produce any discoverable effect.

GROUP MEMBERSHIP

It might be supposed from the studies reported briefly above that moral behavior shows no pronounced correlation with any measurable factor. But such is by no means the case. On the negative side, various conditions have been found to produce undesirable conduct, among them, overemphasis on marks at school (4); and at home, marital maladjustment (12) and parental overprotection or neglect (3). On the positive side, measurable improvement in conduct has been

found where child-teacher relations and classroom morale have improved and where special emphasis is placed on both actual experience and on the discussion of the significance of an activity (9, 10). While there is low correlation between the practices of honesty by best friends not in the same schoolroom, the correlation triples for best friends in the same room (5:240-41). This finding demonstrates the fact of group priority. The standards of the group become interiorized by the group members. Less cohesive groups apparently do not have the same effect on their members.

To summarize, group membership with good morale or *esprit de corps*, particularly in cohesive groups, influences favorably the behavior of the individuals in the group. If this hypothesis is accepted, methods to produce such group cohesiveness and group spirit should be employed. This inference seems reasonable, but it is directly contrary to common practice, which aims to develop individual competition under authoritarian control and direction. And it is well known that an authoritarian group climate tends to produce aggression and intra-group antagonisms which result in conduct opposite to that desired (11).

FRUSTRATION

Lastly, there is the frequently found correlation between moral conduct and intelligence (5:181-89, 15:638). Conversely, a higher number of problem tendencies are found among slow-growing children (2, 7, 13:233-38). It

is difficult to accept any basic physiological reason for this, but social factors suggest themselves. Slow-growing children are often subjected to greater pressures to "keep up with the class" and are faced with adjustment tasks more difficult for them, since they are slow growers. These conditions could be expected to induce more frustration behavior of an undesirable sort. An example of this might be evidenced in the fact that during the elementary-school period, when boys grow more slowly than girls, boys are more often disciplinary problems in school and more often appear in juvenile court.

CONCLUSION

To summarize, undesirable behavior is connected with factors producing excessive frustration, such as low intelligence and slow growth, which tend to produce pressures and conflicts at home and at school. If this hypothesis is accepted, it follows that a way to produce desirable behavior is to structure the environment, so far as possible, in such a way that these pressures and conflicts are reduced. This inference seems reasonable, but it is directly contrary to commonly held views and current practice which lead, instead, through standardized curricular demands, the marking system, and punishment, to increased pressures and increased frustrations—and increased misconduct.

What inferences are to be drawn from these conclusions? They certainly

do not imply any disparagement of spiritual and moral values, however defined. But they do at least suggest that the customary means employed to attain these values are not particularly effective.

Instead of talking about spiritual and moral values, then, let us seek to discover what our real objectives are and then search out ways to attain them. What ends do those who wish to enhance spiritual and moral values in the public schools actually seek? It is my belief that, unless they mean the exploitation of the schools for their own sectarian purposes, the ends they seek may be stated as follows: *to provide for the pupils the conditions needed for their fullest development, conditions which tend to make the pupils integrated, well-adjusted participants in constructive social activity.*

It is unnecessary at this time to elaborate this statement of educational objectives. However, it will be noted that the first part emphasizes the individual development of the person and would include what are sometimes called life orientation, aesthetic appreciations, a spiritual outlook, and even a life philosophy. The second part eliminates neurotic and delinquent behavior and emphasizes moral and social conduct. It would not be appropriate within the limits of this paper to specify the means by which these objectives are to be attained. Certainly, such means do not include the further futile use of educational

gadgets attached to the school program that bear no functional relationship to the climate and curriculum of the school.

Instead, the program for spiritual and moral education must be a part of every activity of the curriculum. It must recognize the values of our culture and study the ways in which these can be incorporated in the school program. These ways will not be speeches and stories about being good boys and girls. Nor will the way consist in scolding and punishing pupils for doing what they have virtually been forced to do. Instead, activities will be included which students have a part in planning. In carrying forward these activities, students will have instruction *and practice* in sharing responsibility and in dealing with tensions that arise. They will be treated as persons who are learning, and they will be rewarded, as is fitting in all learning, by the satisfactions of success in the enterprises they have undertaken.

Thus our objective in elementary education includes more than proficiency in the fundamental processes. Indeed, for the whole school program it includes the teaching of ethics, not by teaching an organized set of principles, nor yet by teaching verbally about the virtues, but by providing, under guidance, experiences which further the aims of those who emphasize the importance of spiritual and moral values.

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SMALL-GROUP DISCUSSION AS AN AID IN COUNSELING

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CAN SOCIOGRAM and small-group discussion be used in the counseling program of a high school? Do they have value as learning media? Does their use help the student gain in self-understanding and in understanding and tolerance of others? Do they increase his skill in interpersonal relations? These were some of the questions investigated by the writer in a recent study.

Many psychiatrists and guidance experts emphasize the value of group activity as an adjunct to the counseling process. There is a definite need for multiple counseling in school guidance programs. In multiple counseling small-group discussion activity, in which the counselor is a nondirective leader and participant, is combined with individual counseling interviews, where a counselee privately discusses personal problems with which he became concerned through the group activity.

The writer believed that small-group discussion might prove to be as significant for the personality growth of so-called "normal" individuals as it has been found to be in the reintegration and rehabilitation of the maladjusted. The effort to test that belief consisted in an exploratory in-

vestigation of multiple counseling using small-group discussion on three maturity levels: high-school, university undergraduate, and adult. This article is a report on the high-school project.

Professor Ruth Strang recently presented a strong case for group activity as a learning medium in personality development. She criticized the narrow concept of vocational guidance in schools because social aspects, such as interpersonal skills and the welfare of society, are neglected. She says: "Guidance to *what* and guidance for *what* have been neglected. . . . There is little evidence that either counselors or students are actually concerned with the social aspects of their life adjustment."¹

Neglect of human relations areas in the family, community, and on the job would seem to be inexcusable when we know that lack of skill in understanding and getting along with others is the basic cause of failures rather than the lack of technical skills.

PROCEDURES OF THE PROJECT

The writer organized the high-school multiple counseling project as

¹ Ruth Strang, "Social Aspects of Vocational Guidance," *School Review*, LVIII (September, 1950), 327.

an activity club called Personology Club. It was publicized through the Senior home rooms with the following announcement:

This club is open to a limited number of Seniors who are interested in learning more about their own personalities and skills in getting along with other people. The club will meet for group discussions at the regular activity hour, Monday and Thursday, from 1:40 to 2:30. Individual vocational-aptitude and personality tests will be given to all group members.

Three boys and seven girls elected the club for the first semester. In the second semester five boys and five girls were selected for club membership from the fifteen who signed up for it. Selection was made to provide heterogeneity of race, religion, and socioeconomic background. The group was limited to ten members so that all could participate in free discussions, which consumed approximately thirty minutes of each activity period. Seventeen discussion meetings were held each semester, and additional periods were used for group tests and written evaluations. The writer served as group leader and counselor. She administered an individual projective test and held two counseling interviews with each student during the project.

The discussion topics focused on self-understanding, individual differences, and interpersonal relations. Sociodramas and introductory talks provided the springboard for the free discussions. Questions thrown out to the group were similar to those raised in books for teen-agers, such as *Under-*

*standing Ourselves*² and *Discovering Myself*.³

The writer worked on the assumption that understanding and accepting one's self is essential to understanding and accepting others. However, social problems, such as racial and religious prejudices and ways to develop tolerance for others, were also important discussion topics. As a learning medium, the free discussions were used to analyze the personal experiences, viewpoints, and prejudices of group members and to develop principles of human behavior for self-adjustment and for social adjustment of everyday living.

The two groups (those in the first semester and those in the second semester) of high-school students were very different in membership and reacted in contrasting fashion to the discussions. Group I, made up of three boys and seven girls, consisted of a majority of poorly adjusted students, unhappy in school or home relationships. The five boys and the five girls in Group II were well-adjusted students, several of whom were school leaders. While Group I was vitally interested in discussions pertaining to "why we like or dislike people" (teachers, parents, siblings, "dates," etc.), Group II was bored with such topics and preferred to concentrate on vocational goals, development of inter-

²Helen Schacter, *Understanding Ourselves*. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight & McKnight, 1945.

³Bernice L. Neugarten, *Discovering Myself*. Chicago: National Forum, Inc., 1946.

personal skills, and social adjustability.

The characteristics of the groups varied greatly. Group I members were emotional, aggressive, and uninhibited. At the beginning of the semester, the girls disliked the boys, and there was much controversy between the two sexes. This slowly dissolved as the members became better acquainted. After seventeen meetings the majority of the students agreed that they had gained understanding, respect, and liking for one another. Group II members were restrained, tactful, and unemotional. Only one member was uninhibited and able to speak freely of her personal feelings and problems. The discussions were on an intellectual level, and the writer was treated as a teacher or faculty adviser rather than as a fellow-participant (as in the Group I discussions).

Both groups enjoyed the sociodramas, and all students showed talent in spontaneous role-taking of unrehearsed dramatizations. The topics included racial and religious discrimination, right and wrong ways to apply for a job, individual differences in emotional reactions, motivational patterns, life-adjustment goals, and defensive behavior. Sociodrama was especially valuable for shy students and for students who were not able to express their feelings in words. They were able to perform creditably even though they appeared tongue-tied in the general discussions.

In addition to the discussion meetings, students wrote self-appraisals, so-

ciograms, and autobiographies. They were given the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, and the Make-a-Picture-Story projective personality test.

The first counseling interview with each student was held during the last week of the group meetings. Its purpose was to give the student a picture of himself as shown by the inventories, sociograms, behavior observations, and comments of his fellow-discussants. The discussion which followed compared the student's self-concept with the concept of him held by others. Directive counseling for self-adjustment and social adjustment climaxed the interview hour. The student and the counselor worked out together constructive activities which the student could use to correct personal weaknesses and to improve his skill in interpersonal relationships. A follow-up interview was held with each student one to two months later to evaluate his progress and to discuss any new problems or needs.

Because of the excellent rapport which had been established through co-participation of counselor and students in the discussion activity of the group meetings, all students appeared to welcome the opportunity to talk confidentially and to ask assistance in the first counseling interview.

OUTCOMES OF THE PROJECT

The twenty students in the high-school project could be classified according to their felt needs, which were

stated or implied aims in electing Personology Club: (1) well-adjusted students who enjoyed group discussion as an activity; (2) well-adjusted students who wished to learn more about personality and interpersonal skills; (3) shy or nonverbal students, dissatisfied with their participation in group discussion activity and with their verbal ability, who wished to improve their social skills; (4) students who were dissatisfied with vocational plans or choices and wished to get help through vocational guidance; and (5) poorly adjusted students who were dissatisfied with their self-adjustment and social adjustment and wished to get help in these areas.

The case-study method was used in evaluating the learning gained through the project experience. The kind of learning gained by a student depended on his interest and need. However, he was exposed to fundamental principles of self-adjustment and social adjustment, to the "whys" of tolerance and respect for viewpoints of others. The social-learning core of the project was the essential difference between an individual counseling process and a multiple-counseling process based on small-group discussion. Herein lies the significance of outcomes which are socially based rather than individualistic.

If we use a definition of "personality" as the social stimulus value of a person, then personality growth must be associated with group or social interaction. Thus, small-group discussion focused on daily-life experiences

of its members should be an effective learning medium for individual and social competence. Outcomes for the twenty students in this investigation agreed with this assumption. Changes in self-understanding, in understanding and acceptance of others, improvement in self-adjustment and in social adjustment are illustrated by statements made by individual students at the end of the project or in the follow-up counseling interview. Samples of these statements follow.

CONCERNING SELF KNOWLEDGE (INSIGHT)

I could see how my opinion and others could both be right.

It irritated me when kids are rebellious to other people's views, yet I know I am that way too.

Comparison of myself with the others helped to give me a clearer picture of myself.

I am more moody and self-centered than is good.

I learned that I shouldn't make snap judgments of people.

ATTITUDES AND APPRECIATIONS

I should accept different points of view more than I've done in the past.

I should be more friendly to others, try to get along better with others.

Arguing and talking was fun.

You had a chance to explain yourself; it makes you feel better and clears up one's ideas.

I could feel just like the ones in the socio-dramas, could see both points of view.

The club gave me a feeling of being worth something as an individual; we don't get this in classes.

SKILLS (BEHAVIOR)

Before this I couldn't stand up in English class and give a book report; now I can and have given two in succession.

The test results helped settle my mind, made me feel I was going in the right direction.

I've learned to make conversation a little better lately.

I've been doing things in groups more and find I enjoy it.

I'm working on my weaknesses and have made some improvement.

CONCERNING OTHERS
KNOWLEDGES

I understand why [member of family, teacher, boy friend] acts the way he does.

I think I have improved in tolerance toward other people and groups; understanding them better makes for more tolerance.

I learned how some people can be hurt by the actions of others.

I found that other members of the group have similar problems to mine.

ATTITUDES AND APPRECIATIONS

I am more curious about reasons why people act the way they do.

Now I have a different way of looking at people; I don't just react emotionally to them without thinking.

I shouldn't be so backward about taking leadership in a group.

Perhaps I'm not quite as shy in groups as I was; after I got to know the others it wasn't so bad.

One should be able to forgive people for some of the ways they act.

SKILLS (BEHAVIOR)

I have learned to be more tolerant [in racial, religious, or political areas].

I've improved in expressing my ideas before a group, have more self confidence.

I think I am making better decisions as to boy friends, etc., not acting so foolish because I think before I act.

I try to see the other person's point of view, try to put myself in his place.

SUMMARY OF RESULTS

Eight general results in terms of learning gained by the majority of the students in both groups are as follows:

1. *Enjoyment and satisfaction from project participation.*—All twenty students said they were sorry when the meetings ended. All attended club meetings regularly and met all appointments for tests and counseling interviews.

2. *Positive changes in attitudes or skill in interpersonal relationships.*—All twenty students believed they had learned facts, attitudes, and skills pertaining to self-understanding and social competence. The majority of them were able to give evidence of meaningful learning through improved self-adjustment and social adjustment in daily living.

3. *Improved understanding of vocational interests and aptitudes.*—The majority of students believed they had been helped through the vocational-guidance aspects of the project. In some cases, this consisted in reassurance of chosen vocational goals. In other cases, information and test results made the students aware of new possibilities which should be considered.

4. *Facilitation of the counseling process.*—Rapport between the counselor and all students was firmly established

through the group activity before the first counseling interview. All students were eager to talk confidentially concerning personal anxieties or adjustment problems in the first counseling interview.

5. *Experience in sociodrama was satisfying and helpful.*—The majority of students gained in spontaneity and empathy through role-taking or audience participation. They voted for sociodrama as a much better springboard for free discussion than introductory talks.

6. *The camaraderie in the group was a positive force for tolerance of others.*—The great majority of students gained respect for viewpoints and personality differences of fellow-members. Many were able to carry over feelings of tolerance into other life-situations.

7. *Poorly adjusted and shy students gained social skills.*—The majority of the poorly adjusted and shy students improved their attitudes toward participation in social groups and gained in self-confidence and in determination to be more outgoing.

8. *Well-adjusted students gained in appreciation of the importance of interpersonal skills and tolerance toward others.*—The majority of the well-adjusted students were motivated toward improvement of their own interpersonal relationships and development of leadership skills.

Meaningful learning in self-adjustment and social-adjustment areas results from a multiple-counseling program which includes small-group discussions for students who elect the activity because of interest or felt need. This conclusion refers to the twelfth-grade students described here, although the same conclusion was also found for two other maturity levels, namely, university undergraduates and adult students in university graduate study. Judging from the generally recognized need for guidance programs and from the success achieved in this study through use of multiple counseling, it would seem worth while for more schools to experiment with this guidance method.

BRIDGING THE GAP BETWEEN ELEMENTARY- AND HIGH-SCHOOL READING AND STUDY SKILLS

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EVIDENCE FROM RESEARCH shows that skills acquired in the elementary school are not always sufficient to enable the pupil to master the subject matter of the high school. However, it is the writer's belief that on the elementary-school level we have not done enough to direct the pupil's attention to the type of reading he will be required to do in high school, to encourage him to face his reading problems honestly, and to realize that on the solution of these problems will depend his happy adjustment to the requirements of high school. Specifically, in the upper grades we must discontinue those procedures and techniques for which the high-school student has little or no use. In their place, we must emphasize those that will be essential to high-school success.

THE PLACE OF RECREATIONAL READING

As a first point, we may look to recreational reading, or "reading for fun," as an experience which is common to boys and girls on both the elementary- and the high-school levels. But reading for fun carries over "comfortably" to the high school only when it becomes wide reading based on a

variety of interests, rather than remaining the restricted reading concerned with a single interest or the few interests of the lower elementary school. During the period the child has spent in the middle and the upper elementary grades, the reading program has, we hope, done everything possible to give him a discriminating and broadening taste in reading.

The school librarian should be an important factor in bringing about this taste for good reading. If he is to know children as well as books, the librarian's training should have included courses comparable to those required of the classroom teacher.

The importance of guidance by teachers and librarians in widening children's interests has been most effectively stated by Dora V. Smith, who said, "The reading interests with which pupils come to school are our opportunity but . . . the reading interests with which they leave school are our responsibility."¹ That authors

¹ Dora V. Smith, "Current Issues Relating to Development of Reading Interests and Tastes," *Recent Trends in Reading*, p. 300. Proceedings of the Conference on Reading Held at the University of Chicago, Vol. I. Compiled and edited by William S. Gray. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 49. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939.

are beginning to see the need for bridging the gap between Grade VIII and high school is evident in much of the recreational reading material available. The trend of modern biography toward the narrative instead of the expository shows this tendency particularly well.

The effort to make high-school boys and girls feel at home in recreational reading is evident in many of the fine books for this age group. These books concern themselves primarily with people, but through these characters the reader comes to learn much of the geographical and historical backgrounds of the localities which the characters represent. However, if this end is to be achieved, the young reader must be assured of an adequate source of such reading whether it comes from the classroom, school, or public library. It has been the experience of the writer, when working with college Freshmen in English, that every group displays a discouraging lack of familiarity with good books. This situation may well be viewed with alarm when we consider the amount of time and money that is spent on teaching children to read and the growing wealth of reading material that is available.

Concerning the problem of recreational reading on the level of Grade VIII and the high school, other aspects should be noted. First, can this type of reading be made to develop critical reading and thinking? While it is true that critical thinking is a mature skill not likely to be mas-

tered in the elementary school, the reading of a stimulating book will lead to a questioning attitude and require this type of thinking.

As the child grows in years and in experience in reading and as competent teachers raise stimulating questions following the reading of worthwhile books instead of requiring formal book reports, the continuity of experience from elementary- to high-school level will be assured. Thus, the teacher directing the reading program will come to realize that quality of reading and the kind of thinking that accompanies it are more important than are scores on standardized reading tests.

Second, as we study more and more the individual child and note his relation to reading, observe his reaction to what he reads, and realize the force that good books can be in building attitudes and interests, the more we are aware that in the past we have been too much concerned with teaching children *how* to read and not nearly enough concerned with *what* they read once the mechanics have been mastered. With the large amount of recreational reading material available, it is imperative that every teacher become familiar with the books at the eighth-grade and high-school level so that he may see to it that they are used to promote desirable attitudes and behavior patterns.

Third, in both Grade VIII and high school, much more time each week should be allowed for free reading, but under the guidance of an

understanding and well-trained teacher. If the teacher or the librarian has provided for much free reading at the eighth-grade level and has helped the children to select books in relation to their interests, needs, and abilities, he has done much to bridge the gap between the grades and high school.

READING TECHNIQUES FOR BOTH LEVELS

The second point suggests that the gap between the upper elementary and the high school can be bridged more effectively when teachers realize that many teaching techniques used on the elementary-school level can be adapted to the level of the Freshman in high school. It is true that in the lower grades the teacher must place great emphasis on the process of reading, but, by the time children reach Grade VIII, they ought to have learned the importance of having a definite purpose in reading. As the child has progressed through the grades, more provision should have been made in the daily program for discussing and sharing with his classmates the materials read.

Too many schools still adhere to the belief that to teach young people to read effectively is the responsibility of a single person on the teaching staff. They should recognize that, instead, the failure to read adequately is the fault of all. It is heartening, therefore, to note a growing tendency for teachers of special content fields to give some help in understanding vocabulary and for teachers to give help

in setting purposes for the reading to be done. Furthermore, on the high-school level as well as on the upper-grade level, teachers are beginning to note the values derived from discussing and sharing with others.

Too often the high-school student has become discouraged and has dropped out of school because his experience is limited to those areas in which required reading is assigned. The elementary-school teacher has recognized the need to broaden reading experiences more quickly than has the high-school teacher, and has been more ready to provide this experience, vicariously or directly, when the need is apparent.

The upper-grade teacher must guard against devoting too much time to checking final results, instead of adequately preparing children for what they are to read through effective introductions, lively discussions, and stimulating pictorial materials. These are the techniques that will make for effective teaching and learning at the high-school level.

Formerly, the teacher gave every member of the class the same library assignment, expected every pupil to follow the assignment in the same way, and graded every piece of work by the same standard. Now, however, pupils on both the upper elementary- and the high-school level are working "on their own," each doing a different piece of work, often something of his own planning. In place of reading specified assignments from a single textbook and being responsible only

to the teacher, pupils today are using many printed materials for their sources and often are working in groups and responsible to one of the group for their results.

Finally, it should be pointed out emphatically that, if the gap between the elementary- and high-school level is to be bridged so successfully that the eighth-grader from even the smallest rural school can feel at home in the larger high school of the urban area, the high-school teacher must continue to give the specific helps in reading materials that had been given in Grade VIII: setting up aims for the reading to be done; clearing up vocabulary difficulties; and using related materials, such as maps and pictures, wisely. The classroom should no longer be a lesson-hearing room but rather a place where pupils are taught to be independent in a library and in the use of books and to rely on reading for learning.

ANALYZING STUDY SKILLS FOR BOTH LEVELS

As a third point, we may well analyze the study skills which may be used effectively at both the upper elementary- and the high-school level. For some time we have built the work in the content subjects around "units." When the upper elementary-school pupil is carefully guided in this type of study, he will be more likely, upon reaching the high-school level, to see a purpose in what he is directed to do and to relate his school activity to the home and the community. As

these school activities reach out more and more into the home and the community, the student necessarily becomes an important member of his high-school group and thus gradually breaks away from dependence on his parents. Much might be done on the eighth-grade level to give students training for this group membership. Most important of all the aids to group membership are the techniques of group discussion, which are still overlooked in many elementary schools.

As an illustration of the need to know how to take part in an effective discussion, we have but to observe the use made of the reading that the child does in and out of the classroom. Too often all reading is subjected to detailed testing, and no opportunity is provided to discover what the reading experience has done to the child. If the library-centered method is to be used effectively on both the elementary- and the high-school level, using wide source materials should be an everyday experience and not a special kind of exercise. Teachers must become much more expert in asking questions which will cause pupils to interpret what is read. From the carefully planned discussion period the teacher will note that reading comprehension is closely related to knowledge of words, that some responses are based on real learning, and that others spring from memory. For the students, the discussion period offers excellent training for group membership, and, through it, they come to

recognize that there are certain things which make them acceptable to the group. Thus, the curriculum of the upper elementary grades must begin to consider less the subject matter as it relates to the pupil as a person and to make more provision for the effect that the subject matter will have on the child as a member of a group.

The function of the teacher in the high school changes somewhat, for there the student must handle textbooks written by subject-matter specialists. The problem of vocabulary then becomes serious, and it is difficult to determine just what teachers are doing in guiding children in this situation. We know that the more slavishly the textbook is followed, the poorer is the adjustment that the student makes to high school. Furthermore, many studies having to do with high-school enrolments show that the greatest losses occur in the first year. This writer is inclined to believe that too much of the reading instruction at the early high-school level is confined to the mastery of a complex organization of literature. The skills acquired in the elementary school are not sufficient to meet this demand.

OTHER AREAS OF ADJUSTMENT

What other study techniques need our attention if our students are to be assured of a harmonious adjustment to high school? Will the present emphasis on mental health eventually have some bearing on the problem of a better adjustment to high school? Is there still much to be done in teach-

ing children how to read varied types of material in different ways? We have talked about that for a long time, but the writer is not sure that either children or adults have applied it to specific reading situations. Many teachers still do not realize that adjusting reading to the kind of material to be read is much more important than merely speeding up the reading process.

The high-school teacher is sometimes slow in recognizing growth in the individual because the instructional aim there is mastery of subject matter. Among the deficiencies the writer has found most often in the reading of college Freshmen are failure to verify facts in supplementary sources, inability to locate materials independently, and apparently no ability whatsoever to make the simplest consistent outline. Surely in high school, and even in the upper elementary grades, there must have been special types of reading in social studies that would require these skills. Some factors other than lack of intelligence must contribute to this failure to use such necessary study skills.

Often the graduate of the one-room school has an especially hard time making the adjustment to high school. Rural schools tend to be formal. They have overemphasized the mechanical side of instruction. Their limited library facilities make quite impossible satisfactory development of some study skills, for instance, that of locating information. The rural pupil misses the stimulation of a large

group when called upon to make decisions or when setting up problems of his own.

CONCLUSION

The high-school teacher must make greater effort to familiarize himself with the procedures and objectives of the reading program on the elementary-school level if he is to strengthen and extend the reading skills practiced on that level. The elementary-school teacher must be aware of the kinds of reading to be employed by the pupil in high school.

Although considerable study has

been made on the problem of reading and understanding upper-grade subject matter, there is still a need to bring together the findings made thus far and to present specific suggestions for further study. We are particularly in need of teachers who understand the importance of extending the pupil's background for reading. What the child brings to the printed page is just as important as what he takes from it. On wise guidance by well-trained and interested teachers depend the pupil's understanding, enjoyment, and efficient use of reading.

BACKGROUND OF STATE TEACHERS' COLLEGE STUDENTS

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THE IMPORTANT ROLE played by environment, particularly home influences, in the development of habits, attitudes, character, and personality and consequently in the achievement of the individual is generally recognized by all who are concerned with education. The home and parental background will, to a large extent, reveal the economic and cultural environment in which a person developed and will reflect the advantages, contacts, experiences, and opportunities to which the family group was exposed. Knowledge of this nature about individuals entering teacher-education institutions will be of use to administrators responsible for preparing a program for the development of well-integrated teachers who will be capable not only of transmitting our present culture but also of advancing it. If we know the environmental background of these students, we can use this information in planning a program of experiences that will strengthen any attribute which is found to be weak or neglected but which is considered essential for a person desiring to become a teacher.

SOURCE OF THE DATA

It was the purpose of this study¹ to reveal the social and economic back-

ground of students entering the state teachers' colleges of Pennsylvania and to determine, by means of comparison with previous studies, the changes, trends, and progress that have been made. The data were collected from each of the fourteen state teachers' colleges within the commonwealth.

Students entering these institutions as Freshmen in September, 1949, were asked to respond to a questionnaire which was constructed to reveal several aspects of a person's social and economic background. This article is limited to the parental background and the home environment of the students. More than 3,300 of the returned inventories were considered usable for the compilation of data—very close to a 100 per cent sampling of the group. The data were then compared with the findings of other studies, especially the Pennsylvania studies made by Heim in 1939² and by Bagley,

¹ George Kaluger, "A Comparative Study of the Social and Economic Background of Students Entering the State Teachers Colleges of Pennsylvania." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1950.

² Thomas J. S. Heim, "A Comparative Study of the Social and Economic Status of State Teachers College Students." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1940.

whose study was conducted for the Rule report in 1925.³

HOME AND PARENTAL BACKGROUND

Type of home community.—It is often stated that most teachers' college students come from rural areas and small towns. A comparison of Pennsylvania studies reveals that more of the present students come from communities with populations of over 5,000 than did the students considered in previous surveys. It was also found that the per cent of students who come from rural areas is in approximately the same proportion as the number of people in the state who live in these areas. In other words, the students represent a cross-section of the general population of the state with respect to distribution in rural and urban areas.

Place of birth of students and of parents.—In several other respects, also, the students were found to be representative of the general population. The per cent of students who were born in Pennsylvania is representative of the state population. Nine out of every ten students are native to the commonwealth.

The per cent distribution of the various nationalities represented by the parents of the students is in the same rank order in which these nationality groups are found in the state at large. Approximately 30 per cent

of the students are of German descent. The per cent of foreign-born parents is just slightly higher than the per cent of foreign-born persons found in the commonwealth.

Size of family.—The size of the family from which the students come has changed in the past twenty-five years. There is definite evidence that the students are coming from smaller families. The number of children in the family in the case of these students is the lowest found in any study. Twenty-five years ago, the Rule report found a median of four children per family; the study ten years ago revealed that the median had dropped to 3.5; and the present-day median is 2.4 children per family. This decrease will have additional significance when it is considered in connection with the economic income of the family.

Occupation of fathers.—Much has been written concerning the occupational classes from which the majority of the students who attend state teachers' colleges come. The general implication is that most state teachers' college students are likely to come from families representing the semi-skilled and skilled working class of the state. Furthermore, the Rule report of 1925 stated that the status of state teachers' college students would never change.

If a comparison of the occupational status of the parents of students in 1925, 1939, and 1949 should prove this statement to be true, the teaching profession, and society as well, could

³ *Educational Surveys.* Reports of the Committees Appointed by Gifford Pinchot, Governor, Submitted March, 1925. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: State Department of Public Instruction, 1925.

be considered as jeopardizing its own existence by neglecting to select or to attract students with more promising backgrounds. The assumption is that, in higher occupational levels, more cultural contacts and advantages will be available to give the students backgrounds deemed more adequate for transmitting our heritage and culture. This assumption is strengthened when it is considered that Sims,⁴ in the validation of his instrument of socioeconomic status, found that the occupation of the father was the best single factor indicative of the economic resources, associations, recreation, and cultural interests of the family.

A comparison of the occupations of fathers of teachers' college students as found in three studies is shown in Table 1. The classification given is the one used by Heim in his 1939 study.

It is evident from this comparison that larger numbers of students are coming from the homes of businessmen than was formerly the case. The more surprising revelation is the noticeable decrease in the number of students whose fathers are engaged in farming. Although the fathers of 44 per cent of the present students are listed under the laboring group, it should be noted that three-fourths of these fathers are classified as skilled workers. Since there is no breakdown of the laboring group in the other studies, no comparisons can be made here.

⁴ V. M. Sims, *The Measurement of Socio-economic Status*. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1928.

As compared to all employed males in Pennsylvania, the present students definitely come from a much higher occupational level. When consideration is given to male workers who are classified as semiskilled or unskilled, it was found that Pennsylvania had 49 per cent of its workers in this group; the United States, 47 per cent of its

TABLE 1

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTIONS OF OCCUPATIONS OF FATHERS OF TEACHERS' COLLEGE STUDENTS AS SHOWN IN THREE STUDIES

Occupation	Rule Study (1925)	Heim Study (1939)	Kaluger Study (1949)
Labor (skilled, semiskilled, unskilled) . . .	49.1	37.5	44.0
Business (proprietary, managerial) . . .	23.6	33.2	36.1
Professions . . .	7.1	12.1	12.9
Farming	18.7	12.8	5.4
Miscellaneous . . .	1.5	4.4	1.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

total workers. Only 19 per cent of the fathers of state teachers' college students are of this class. Almost one-third of the fathers were classified as craftsmen, foremen, and kindred skilled workers. It may be said that the fathers of one-half of the students are manual workers but that their work is usually of a skilled nature. The business and the professional groups combined are represented by a higher per cent of students' fathers than is found in the general population of the state and of the nation.

Income of fathers.—The income of

the father is another factor which is especially significant in the status of the family group. An analysis of comparative income indicates that the median income of the fathers of the present students is the highest of any found thus far. The Rule study of 1925 found a median income of \$2,122, while Heim reported \$1,603 in 1939. The present study revealed a median of \$3,580 for 1948.

Some of the differences can be explained by the economic conditions at the periods when these studies were conducted. To interpret the figures properly, therefore, it is necessary to refer to real wages and the cost of living index. Based on a cost of living index of 100 for 1939, a person would have had to earn \$2,004 in 1925 or \$2,671 in 1948 in order to buy as much as he could have bought for \$1,603 in 1939. This means that the fathers of the present students have a purchasing power much greater than that of the fathers of the students in previous studies.

Education of parents.—A review of the educational level attained by the parents of teachers' college students indicates that the level attained has been raised consistently. Almost half of the parents of the present students completed high-school work; in 1939, only 40 per cent of the parents had done likewise. Although there is a decrease of 2 in the per cents of fathers who are college graduates, there is an increase of 4 in the per cents of mothers who graduated from college. As compared with the general adult popu-

lation of the state, it is definitely the better-educated parents in Pennsylvania who are sending their children to teachers' college.

Home ownership.—The per cent of parents of state teachers' college students who own or rent their homes may give some indication of whether the level of economic well-being of this particular group of people has been raised. The per cent of students who come from families that own their homes has increased from 73 in 1939 to 80 in 1949. The housing shortage and building boom of the postwar era may have induced many to build their own homes. The median income of these parents indicates that they were financially capable of undertaking such a project. The high per cent of home ownership in 1939 reveals that in the past, as in the present, most students came from families that owned their homes. For both periods, the per cent of families of students who owned their homes was larger by 25 than the per cent of families in the general population of Pennsylvania.

Size of homes.—The number of rooms in a house has often been used as an index of economic status. Today the worth of this factor in considering economic level is debatable. During and since the war period, emphasis has been on smaller, more compact homes, usually of one story or a story and a half.

A significant difference in the number of rooms has occurred in the last ten years. A decade ago Heim found that the home of the parents of state

teachers' college students in Pennsylvania contained a median number of eight rooms. In the present study, the median number of rooms is 6.3. This is still higher than the national median in 1947, which was 4.8.

Economic significance cannot be attached to the differences found in these studies in view of the change in concept of the desirable size for a house. It is more significant to note that there are 2.7 rooms per child in the present study, as compared to 2.3 rooms per child in 1939. Although there are fewer rooms per house now, there are also fewer children per family. Consequently, the number of rooms per child was no less than it was in 1939.

Automobile, telephone, radio.—The presence of nonessential items in the home is an indication of added comfort. The automobile, telephone, and radio are three items generally considered as indications of a good standard of living.

In the past, the telephone was regarded as a good indicator of the level of living, but today it is considered by many a necessity. The marked increase in the number of families possessing telephones is notable. In ten years the per cent of families of teachers' college students possessing telephones increased from 70 to 87.

The ownership of automobiles decreased from 79 per cent in 1939 to 77 per cent in 1949. The types of cars possessed by the parents of the present students are of the same rank and are found in approximately the same

ratio, with a few more people today possessing the higher-priced machines.

It is interesting to find that, both in 1939 and in 1949, 98 per cent of the families of state teachers' college students had at least one radio in the home. Generally speaking, there has been a great increase in the number of families possessing telephones, but the per cents possessing automobiles and radios have been relatively stable in the last ten years.

Magazines in the home.—The median number of magazines received regularly in the home is lower today than it was ten years ago. A median of 3.8 magazines was reported in this study, but Heim indicated a median of 4.4 magazines. Perhaps of equal significance is the fact that more than 5 per cent of the students in 1939 did not receive any magazines, while in this study only 2 per cent had no access regularly to a magazine in the home.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

What does all this mean to those interested in the teaching profession? It means that the state teachers' colleges, at least in Pennsylvania, are now receiving students whose background qualities are better than they have ever been since 1925. This has been determined by a comparison of the findings of three studies which have been conducted since that time. This conclusion is based on the following facts.

1. The parents of the present students have attained more education, have reached a much higher income

bracket, and are from a relatively higher occupational status. These parents have both a broader educational background and the financial means by which to provide for a higher type of home life.

2. The home environment of the students is on a relatively higher plane of social and economic well-being than was found formerly. There are more privately owned homes and more telephones than were found earlier among state teachers' college students. These

homes definitely represent a higher standard of living.

These findings show that the present students in state teachers' colleges belong to higher socioeconomic levels than did those who attended these institutions in the past. It appears, therefore, that today's students have had the opportunities and the means to participate in experiences which would add to their backgrounds and thus increase their potentialities for becoming successful teachers.

TEACHING TEACHERS ABOUT SALARIES

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New York City



THIS IS A STORY of a group of teachers whose desire for increased compensation has traditionally been frustrated by an underlying conviction that their services are of only moderate value to their community. It is a story of how, on one occasion, their desires finally were articulated into a successful drive for better salaries. And it is a story of a leadership that tried to keep itself democratic while recognizing the political power of unanimity and the need for steady forward motion in any project battling inertia and experienced opposition.

It was not a good year for raising salaries at our school. We had received a raise just two years before, for one thing. Our enrolment was increasing, and the superintendent was planning to hire some additional teachers for the next year—another drain on the school's money. The board of education was paying more for equipment and supplies and new land than it had in the past. Moreover, the people in our town were paying more for food and rent and movies than they had in the past, and they might be in no mood for a tax increase. The atmosphere was still gray with ugly reminiscences of a tax strike in an earlier year. There was a whole list of like reasons for leaving salaries alone.

But the real reason it was not a good year was that our teachers, like their colleagues everywhere, did not sincerely believe that they deserved more money for their services. The profound sense of inadequacy which haunts all teachers—the leaden conviction which creeps like paralysis over those aged in the job—lay heavy upon us. Each teaching day had weltered our memories with the scars of unmet schedules, upset children, good plans gone awry, hurried jobs half-done. This sense of inadequacy, along with the legacy of fear left by those hardy teachers who once stood their unsteady ground to make individual deals with the employing board, were the real reasons.

The members of the salary research committee hesitantly appointed by the faculty governing board were carefully chosen to represent the irreconcilable (they remained so) elements of faculty opinion. Echoes of the preceding campaign to increase salaries still hung along our corridors as the new committee split up and trod off in all directions to ask each individual teacher what they could do for him.

"Well, I don't mind telling you what I think, but I don't believe this thing is going to amount to much. You know, this is a bad year to bother the board . . ."

Then the questions came, and the ideas and the feelings.

"Say, one thing I *have* been wondering is, does it take them as long to get to their maximum over at Harvman as it does us? It seems like fifteen years would be long enough.

"Something else! I don't know how you feel about it, but I'm married myself and I still don't think you should get any more money just because you're married. We had a lot of trouble about that the last time this salary thing came up. Just between you and me, don't *you* think . . ."

The conferences went on for days. The resulting master-list of problems told the committee what to study then and what to look out for later. Professional organizations and publications, government sources, popular magazines, private newsletters, metropolitan newspapers, friends at neighboring schools, and a handful of other sources provided information to the committee.¹

Once the facts about our problems

¹ A few of the sources of information which proved exceedingly useful to our committee are:

1. Research Division of the National Education Association—the best single source of facts and publications.

2. Bureau of Labor Statistics of the U.S. Department of Labor—for facts and publications on the past and present cost of living in your own area.

3. American Federation of Teachers—for salary schedules of schools in your area and schools like yours everywhere.

4. *Education Index*—for a listing of current articles on salaries in professional magazines.

5. *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*—for a listing of current articles on teachers' salaries.

were gathered, there was the major job of educating the teachers with them. The sheer bulk of the information alone made the project complex. But that was not all. The committee had to present a body of facts so coherent that individual teachers would be drawn together into a coagulation of opinion and would come to speak their needs in one unified voice.

An all-faculty meeting seemed best for the purpose of the committee, which was to present a pointed, impressive report of findings, and then send the teachers home to think about them. The committee was convinced that a long, wrangling discussion would not help the cause of unity so much as other means of communication.

The feature of the late-afternoon meeting was an easel set in the middle of the library where the teachers had gathered. From the easel hung a sheaf of oversize graphs and charts drawn in bold lines and bright colors. One by one, the posters unfolded their story of the length of tenure of our teachers, rising living costs and lagging salaries, the yawning space between our salaries and the salaries recommended by the National Education Association,² plus tedious variations on the main theme: the great difference between our school and similar schools in our area. A short interval of questioning separated the presentation of the posters from the

² Ralph McDonald, "Professional Salaries for Teachers," *NEA Journal*, XXXVIII (December, 1949), 662-64.

distribution of the inevitable mimeographed report of committee findings—twenty-three crowded pages of them.

The booklets distributed were simply organized. Sixteen incisive questions were listed in the table of contents. The text answered these individually, usually by quoting reliable sources, occasionally with a salary-committee comment on an authority's statement. Sample questions were: "How well should a teacher live?" "Do low salaries keep people away from teaching?" "Will living costs go down?" "Can our school pay more?"

This last one caused much controversy. The committee had found among our teachers general ignorance about the gathering and budgeting of school funds. Thus, to acquaint the faculty with the very simplest elements of community taxation and school finance, the committee wrote a short, informal description of how our school got its money. The section ended with the statement that school income could be raised immediately and the prediction that it could be held up in the future. To complete the financial picture, our expenditures for the preceding three years and our budget for the current year were shown in the appendix.

Although the posters and the booklet were meant to complement each other, each method told its own complete story. A teacher who had missed or slept through the discussion of the posters could read the booklet at his leisure. And anyone wanting to use

the booklet for a scratch pad could get most of the facts he needed from the posters, which were left on display in the faculty room.

Nothing challenged the committee so sharply as the teachers' reluctance to recognize certain facts about their salary status. Many of the staff could not accept at face value the posters which showed the position of the school in relation to its neighbors. Many more snickered at the sight of the N.E.A. "basic" salary line rocketing upward away from our own.

"Brother! They're dreaming!"

A few laughed aloud at the next poster, which showed the 1946 N.E.A. salary corrected to the Bureau of Labor Statistics cost-of-living index for the current month. The line for the experienced teacher with a Doctor's degree shot off the top of the graph, which stopped at \$9,000. The "minimum" salary for a teacher with a Bachelor's degree was above our current median. The laughter changed to uneasy discomfort a bit later when the chairman insisted upon using these "outrageous" corrected figures in discussing the N.E.A. recommendations.

From the very beginning, the job of the committee had shaped up as the classic job of leadership in a democracy: to help the group recognize its problem, to help the group gather facts and see them whole, to create an emotional atmosphere encouraging to clear thought, to pave the paths to group agreement and decision, and to carry that decision into action. Such leadership does not constitute itself a

single master-mind; it tries to create an operating group mind.

Thus when, following the meeting, the salary research committee was re-appointed in a body as the core of a new salary recommending committee, it tried to keep its leadership democratic. It determined not to recommend to the board some patchwork plan of its own design; rather, it chose to unite faculty opinion wherever possible and to funnel this unified opinion directly to the board.

Plunging into the job with a ream of paper in one hand and a duplicator in the other, the committee developed and circulated, one by one, a series of multiple-choice questionnaires. Each succeeding form cut down the range of choice. The final statement recommended a number of changes in the board's salary policy. Its introduction said that every teacher placing a mark in the square (signatures were prohibited at all times) had accepted the recommendations as an adequate statement of his own opinion at that time. Sixty teachers checked the square; ten did not.

This technique, though far from perfect, enabled the committee to present to the board a picture of

strong faculty unity, a specific set of proposals with which the board could work, and a fair promise that splinter groups would not beset the board for special provisions as they had during the preceding salary rescheduling.

The nine specific recommendations upon which the faculty finally agreed were presented to the board of education at a private meeting. The board and the superintendent labored without the teachers (as the teachers had labored without the superintendent and the board) to bring forth a decision. This decision was given by the board itself at a special meeting of all teachers. A compromise, of course, was the answer. Some recommendations were ignored; others were incorporated into the new salary policy.

Although the need to educate teachers about salaries is real and the need to blend their individual desires into successful salary-reform programs is nearly universal, the particular techniques outlined here should not be copied. Each school is distinctive, and each must develop techniques specifically in its own context. However, the experience of our salary committee may well suggest points of focus for other teacher groups.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON HIGHER EDUCATION¹

NORMAN BURNS AND MANNING M. PATTILLO, JR.

University of Chicago



THIS LIST OF REFERENCES, with a few exceptions, is a selection from materials on higher education that have come to the attention of the compilers between July 1, 1950, and June 30, 1951. Institutional histories, annual reports, yearbooks, and proceedings of associations regularly devoted to the problems of colleges and universities have not been included.

The compilers have intended that their selection should be comprehensive both in the subject matter of the references and in the methods employed in the treatment of the subject matter. They have tried to select from the large amount of published material those items that they believe will be most helpful to informed practitioners in the field of higher education. It has not been possible, of course, to include all titles that might be worthy of attention.

695. BENJAMIN, HAROLD (editor). *Democracy in the Administration of Higher Education*. Tenth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society. New York: Harper & Bros., 1950. Pp. x+240.

Discusses the role of higher education in the United States. Examines administrative organization and practices in general

and with particular reference to faculty personnel, student personnel, and finance. Emphasizes the need for, and efforts toward, more democratic administration.

696. BLACKWELL, T. E. "Tax Exemption and Its Abuse," *College and University Business*, IX (August, 1950), 23.

Reviews the decision of the United States Tax Court in which the C. F. Mueller Company, operated for the benefit of New York University, was denied tax exemption. Notes the reasoning in other decisions of a similar type.

697. BLACKWELL, T. E. "Power of State Auditor To Control Disbursements of Colleges," *College and University Business*, X (February, 1951), 31.

Reviews two West Virginia cases and an Arizona case which placed limitations on the power of the auditors in those states to pass on the legitimacy of expenditures in state institutions of higher education.

698. BLEGEN, THEODORE C. "Ferment in Graduate Education," *NEA Journal*, XXXIX (December, 1950), 685-86.

Enumerates desirable attributes of a college teacher and describes some changes in graduate schools that might result in better preparation of college teachers.

699. CARMAN, HARRY J. "Reminiscences of Thirty Years," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXII (March, 1951), 115-22, 168-69.

Traces steps in the development of the general-education program at Columbia College. Stresses the means of securing faculty acceptance of such a program.

¹ See also Item 298 (Chambers) in the list of selected references appearing in the May, 1950, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

700. CARMICHAEL, OLIVER C. "Higher Education," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXII (March, 1951), 145-48, 169-70. Reviews the revolutionary changes that took place in higher education between 1850 and 1950. Pays special attention to the effects of the Land Grant College Act, the elective system, the development of the modern university, the general-education movement, and the community-college idea.
701. CLAPP, MARGARET (editor). *The Modern University*. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1950. Pp. viii+116. Contains chapters by four authors, tracing the development of American, British, and continental European universities through the nineteenth century and into the twentieth. Emphasizes the conflict of ideas concerning the purpose of the university and its relation to the state.
702. DRUCKER, PETER F. "The Graduate Business School," *Fortune*, XLII (August, 1950), 92-94, 110, 113-14, 116. Traces the rapid growth of collegiate schools of business, both in enrollment and influence, since World War I. Discusses some of the urgent questions of function facing these schools.
703. EDGAR, EARL E. "Values, Social Science, and General Education," *Journal of General Education*, V (April, 1951), 168-80. Examines the theory and methods of inculcating democratic values in college programs. Places particular emphasis on small-group discussion as a technique for changing attitudes.
704. FINDLEY, WARREN G. "The College Evaluation Officer," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXII (June, 1951), 321-24. Outlines the responsibilities of a college specialist in testing. Suggests the significant role that such an officer can play in the improvement of instruction.
705. FOX, EDWARD WHITING. "History One Revisited," *Journal of General Education*, V (July, 1951), 263-70. Clarifies some of the problems faced by teachers of introductory courses in history and outlines the steps taken to solve these problems at Cornell University.
706. GLASSCOCK, JEAN. "Tie It Up in a New Package," *Harper's Magazine*, CCI (September, 1950), 98-99. Warns of the dangers in the trend toward increased financial support for experiments and innovations in college education, to the detriment of established, essential programs.
707. HIGHT, GILBERT. *The Art of Teaching*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1950. Pp. xviii+292. Considers teaching in everyday life and in formal education; the methods of the teacher; and the work and influence of some of the great teachers, from the Sophists of the fifth century B.C. to John Dewey. Views teaching as an art rather than as a science.
708. HOFF, CHARLES. "What 497 Colleges and Universities Report about Enrollment . . . Tuition Fees . . . Board and Room Charges . . . Salaries and Wages . . . Military Leaves . . . Acceleration," *College and University Business*, XI (August, 1951), 29-33. Reports a survey of institutions of various types. Much of the material is arranged in tabular form.
709. HOPKINS, ERNEST MARTIN. *This Is Our Purpose*. Hanover, New Hampshire: Dartmouth Publications, 1950. Pp. xx+428. A collection of addresses, articles, and other writings by the long-time president of Dartmouth College, dealing with many aspects of education and of life in general.
710. HUMPHREYS, LLOYD G. "Transfer of Training in General Education," *Journal of General Education*, V (April, 1951), 210-16. Traces the history of the transfer problem and applies the present knowledge of transfer to some current questions in

the organization of general-education courses.

711. HUTCHINS, ROBERT M. "Freedom of the University," *College and University Business*, X (February, 1951), 19-22.

Contends that the function of a true university is to be a center of independent thought. Discusses some of the conditions necessary for the performance of this duty.

712. *The Idea and Practice of General Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950. Pp. xii+334.

This account of the College of the University of Chicago, written by seventeen present and former members of the staff, deals with the three main areas of theory and history, curriculum, and method.

713. INGALLS, JEREMY. "High-School Seniors and the Liberal Arts College," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXVII (Summer, 1951), 281-94.

Comments on the difficulty of explaining the meaning of liberal arts education to high-school Seniors and presents an address that the author has used successfully for this purpose.

714. KELLEY, FRED J. *Toward Better College Teaching*. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1950, No. 13. Pp. iv+72.

Summarizes the strengths and weaknesses of college teachers, as seen by the administrators of higher institutions, and examines practices in the graduate and undergraduate schools for the improvement of college teaching.

715. KELLY, WILLIAM FREDERICK, S. J. "Specific Procedures for the In-service Improvement of the College Faculty," *Educational Record*, XXXII (April, 1951), 132-41.

Summarizes current practices in ten broad areas of concern for better teaching, ranging from the induction of new staff members to "insuring the flow of ideas between the campus and the world."

716. LEWIS, HARRY F. "The Liberal-Arts College in the Training of Scientists," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXII (June, 1951), 297-303, 343.

Analyzes data from a report of the National Research Council on the undergraduate training of persons who earned doctorates in science during the period 1936-45. Attempts to rank institutions by name and type on the basis of their productivity as sources of scientists.

717. MATTHEWS, T. H. "The Training of University Teachers," *Universities Quarterly*, V (May, 1951), 269-74.

Describes and appraises a summer school in college teaching, conducted in 1950 under the auspices of the National Conference of Canadian Universities.

718. MORRIS, C. R. "Some Reflections on College Education in the United States," *Universities Quarterly*, V (August, 1951), 347-50.

Sketches a broad picture of American higher education as seen by a British university officer.

719. PERRY, RALPH BARTON, and OTHERS. *Modern Education and Human Values*. Pitcairn-Crabbe Foundation Lecture Series, Vol. III. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1950. Pp. xiv+110.

A collection of five essays on the teaching of values, by Ralph Barton Perry, Howard Foster Lowry, Charles Edward Merriam, Oliver C. Carmichael, and Sir Oliver Franks. The authors approach the theme from different points of view.

720. "Recent Supreme Court Opinions on Segregated Education," *Higher Education*, VII (September 1, 1950), 3-5.

Reports decisions in the Sweatt and McLaurin cases, in which there were important opinions interpreting the doctrine that provision of "separate but equal" facilities for the races does not constitute a violation of the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. The McCready case in Maryland, affecting the operation of the Southern regional plan, is also discussed briefly.

721. SARGENT, RALPH M., and BOOTH, WAYNE C. "Reading and Writing on Human Values," *Journal of General Education*, V (July, 1951), 245-53.
Describes a course at Haverford College, designed to overcome the weaknesses of customary courses in composition. The Haverford course gives the student significant ideas about which to write, by combining the teaching of composition with the careful reading of complete works and intimate discussion of the problems and values embodied in these works.
722. SIMEY, T. S. "Problems of the Post-graduate Student in the Social Sciences," *Universities Quarterly*, V (August, 1951), 330-38.
Discusses the graduate programs, degrees, and research which, in the judgment of the author, are most likely to lead to advances in the social sciences. Gives particular attention to British higher education.
723. *State-controlled Higher Education in Arkansas*. Little Rock, Arkansas: Arkansas Commission on Higher Education, 1951. Pp. 190.
Contains the report of the Arkansas Commission on Higher Education to the Governor and the General Assembly and the report of the survey conducted for the Commission by Norman Burns, director, and Robert J. Kibbee, assistant director.
724. TAYLOR, HAROLD (editor). *Essays in Teaching*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1950. Pp. x+240.
States the ideas and practices followed in the development of the liberal arts program at Sarah Lawrence College.
725. TEAD, ORDWAY. "College Trustees," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXII (April, 1951), 171-80, 226.
Discusses the principal duties and problems of trustees from the standpoint of the trustee himself.
726. TEAD, ORDWAY. "The Role of the College Teacher in Our Culture," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXVII (Spring, 1951), 17-30.
Pictures college teachers as a creative minority maintaining a wholesome tension with our culture. Suggests ways in which the status and influence of academic persons can be enhanced.
727. TRYTTEN, M. H. "Study and Research in the Natural Sciences," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXII (June, 1951), 287-92.
Discusses some fundamental considerations in the training of scientists for long-range national security. Stresses the need for basic, as contrasted with applied, research; the maintenance of an adequate number of scientists; and the importance of scientific problems affecting the welfare of foreign countries.
728. UBVELOHDE, A. R. "Research in the Universities," *Universities Quarterly*, V (August, 1951), 351-58.
Proposes bases for the organization of research and research staffs in a university, emphasizing research in the physical sciences.
729. WEEKS, I. D. "The University President and the Publics," *School and Society*, LXXII (November 18, 1950), 321-24.
Reports a questionnaire study of the relations of forty-six presidents of state universities with students, faculty members, alumni, legislators, parents, the press, governing boards, and the general public.
730. WRISTON, HENRY M. "Which Way Independence?" *College and University Business*, IX (December, 1950), 19-22.
Analyzes the factors tending toward greater dependence of higher institutions on tax support. Discusses the educational implications of this trend and proposes measures to re-establish independence.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

JOHN E. HORROCKS, *The Psychology of Adolescence: Behavior and Development*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1951. Pp. xxvi+614. \$4.50.

The division of the total developmental life of the human into rather specific growth periods, for purposes of intensive study, is well justified by the complexity of the growth process and the culture which influences it, as well as by the scope and depth of the psychological implications involved. One of the most clearly defined of these growth periods is adolescence, and increasing attention has been given to this period in the lives of members of our society ever since the monumental works of G. Stanley Hall early in the century.

To synthesize and interpret adequately the voluminous body of modern scientific literature dealing with the development and behavior of the adolescent is a challenge to any scholar. *The Psychology of Adolescence*, written by John E. Horrocks and edited by Leonard Carmichael, is a positive answer to that challenge. This is a book which deals effectively with development, psychology, and the relationship between the two. Yet it is organized in such a manner that an instructor using the book as a textbook may emphasize one or the other, or both, as he wishes.

The book is divided into five parts. Part I is a brief discussion of the place of the adolescent in our society and the factors influencing his development and behavior. The next three parts, composing the main body of the book, are approximately equal in length. They deal with social development and adjustment, development and growth, and interests and activities, respectively. Part V, "An Overview of Behavior," presents a brief description of the psychological

theory of goal-directed behavior and a treatment of modes of adjustment when progress toward the goal is blocked. This part closes with a rather comprehensive case study, complete with study questions and a psychological interpretation.

On the basis of the concepts emphasized, as well as the author's point of view, one gets the distinct, and correct, impression that adolescence is primarily a period of social change, and that other aspects of development, while important and contributory, are nevertheless secondary. While nearly a third of the book is concerned with social aspects, only one chapter is devoted to each of the areas of intellectual, physical, anatomical, and motor development. There is no chapter dealing directly with emotional development as such, but the author has skilfully woven the relevant concepts into the discussion where they are most meaningful. This is particularly true in those chapters relating to social development and in Part IV, dealing with adjustment.

The book is comprehensive and scholarly. From the various sciences of human growth the author has drawn those concepts which are basic to the understanding of the adolescent and his behavior. Thorough documentation is evidenced throughout the book, and each chapter closes with an extensive, though selective, bibliography. The use of more than fifty tables and almost seventy graphic figures has advantageously supplemented the author's discussion of the many studies cited. Although the extensive use of primary sources tends to make some parts of the book appear reportorial, there is adequate compensation in the author's straightforward and clear style of writing. As a further aid to clarification, each chapter ends with a concise summary.

Both because of its organization and its content, this book is particularly suitable as a textbook for students in such fields as education, social work, and recreation. Other professional people whose work involves the guidance and supervision of young people will find it very valuable as a reference. It should be studied carefully by teachers, school administrators, counselors, child psychologists, physicians, psychiatrists, social workers, and recreational leaders.

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WILL FRENCH, J. DAN HULL, and B. L. DODDS, *American High School Administration: Policy and Practice*. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1951. Pp. viii+626. \$5.00.

The authors of this book on educational administration have attempted to provide a basic concept of what is involved in administering secondary schools in a democracy. The point is made that the high-school principal must, of necessity, view his problems through the eyes of the social scientist, the educational psychologist, and the administrator. In studying the problems of administration, the authors differentiate clearly between organization and administration. Organization is described as applying to activities designed to develop a structure through which desired results or ends are effectively reached. Administration applies to those activities which are involved in the operation or functioning of this structure.

The principles involved in organization and administration and their proper relationships at federal, state, and local levels are considered. The presentation is made in a manner designed to furnish a sound basis for reaching decisions pertaining to the improvement of present over-all organization and administration of education.

The subject matter of the volume has been divided into six parts: (1) "The Executive Function and Youth Education"; (2) "Staff Personnel Relationships, Responsibilities, and Organization"; (3) "The Principal and the Educational Program"; (4) "The Principal and Pupil-Personnel Activities"; (5) "The Principal and the High School Plant"; (6) "The High School and Its Community." Each of these parts is subdivided into its various aspects to indicate the principal's role. The principal's relations to his community, the board of education, and the superintendent of schools are clearly set forth, indicating how he may operate to help develop policies and practices that will contribute to a thoroughly democratized program of education for all youth.

French, Hull, and Dodds have been careful to impress the reader with the importance of a sound philosophy concerning education. They hold that too many high-school principals give too little thought to their functions of making the schools into what they should be. Progress can be made only when there is a sound basic philosophy to guide the program. Thus:

Leadership is not synonymous with a dependence upon static rules of procedure; it always requires imagination and judgment and the intelligent application of general principles to specific situations [p. 233].

The philosophical treatment of administration is amplified and enriched by including results of surveys concerning high schools and by discussing practical situations concerning procedures and personnel in secondary education. The authors believe that it is necessary for the administrator to play an active part in developing policies and practices which directly touch the lives of the students. Such matters as entrance, progress, and graduation policies and practices are fully treated, and excellent examples of evaluation procedures are included.

The school administrator who is faced with the problem of establishing a program of guidance will find an excellent treatment

of this matter. These authors believe that the school's program, activities, and practices need to be studied for the purpose of making such modifications as may be needed in meeting pupil needs. With respect to the principal's part in this matter they conclude:

The principal of a typical high school is responsible for strong leadership which presses for the development of a school program and a climate conducive to the kind of all-round growth and development that pupil-personnel work seeks to help youth achieve [p. 464].

An additional feature of this textbook worthy of comment is its treatment of the "community aspect" of school administration. Recognition is given to the changed nature of the public relations program. Such a program is no longer described as a high-pressure campaign to "sell" the public a static school program. The modern concept is described as one involving a program of information and education concerning the ways in which children grow, the objectives set forth by the school, and the means utilized in their achievement. The ideal relationship between school and community thus involves co-operative study, planning, and evaluation.

This volume is one which will prove useful to the student who is preparing himself for school administration. Likewise, it will be valuable to the administrator who seeks to evaluate his efforts in a specific situation. The book deserves a more meaningful and attractive title than that assigned to it, *American High School Administration*.

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FRITZ REDL and WILLIAM W. WATTENBERG,
Mental Hygiene in Teaching. New York:
Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1951. Pp. xiv+
454. \$3.50.

Mental Hygiene in Teaching is both the title and the principal content of this book.

Redl and Wattenberg have addressed themselves to the task of describing basic mental health principles and theories and applying them to the practical problems of classroom teaching. It is a book for teachers and for teachers of teachers. In it have been brought to bear the powerful and impressive skills of Fritz Redl previously demonstrated in his other publications.

The book is organized into three principal sections, preceded by an introduction and followed by two appendixes offering special information and definitions of terms. The principal parts of the book deal, first, with fundamental facts and theories of growth and development, emphasizing psychological development; second, with applications of these principles to the immediate problems of the classroom and the teacher; and, third, with a discussion of some special problems of the teacher, of children who need special outside help, and of ways of working with parents. Each chapter ends with excellently selected lists of supplementary readings and audio-visual aids.

The book is full of case materials—some short, some long, but all apt and pointed. It fairly sparkles with these bits of observational and analytic skill. If the book brings the teacher-reader nothing else, it will provide him with endless case materials around which he may arrange his thinking or organize his teaching of classes. This principal advantage of the book is also, in many ways, its principal fault. It gives the book a disjointed quality which will be irritating to many more advanced readers. Somehow the book lacks continuity—an impression which may be partly attributed to the voluminous case tidbits and partly to the division of each chapter by a large number of subheads, often as many as five on a two-page spread. This reviewer is inclined to feel that the book would be best used in conjunction with other textbooks or with extensive seminar discussions and full case analyses. Otherwise, the novice reader may find himself full of spar-

klings case illustrations not readily related to continuing generalizations.

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MILTON J. GOLD, *Working To Learn: General Education through Occupational Experiences*. Teachers College Studies in Education. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951. Pp. x+192. \$2.85.

WILSON H. IVINS and WILLIAM B. RUNGE, *Work Experience in High School*. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1951. Pp. viii+508. \$4.75.

Various authors, among them Commissioner Earl James McGrath, Harvard's James B. Conant, and August B. Hollingshead, have deplored the inadequacy of a secondary-school curriculum, originally designed as preparation of a few for college, that results in failure to train many of our youth who should go to high school or that fails to develop to its fullest potential the brain power of many others.

Milton J. Gold, of the Washington State Department of Education, and Wilson H. Ivins and William B. Runge, of the University of New Mexico, show the secondary-school adolescent another pathway to a more satisfying life. It lies through distributive education and other work experience connected with high-school activities. In fact, *Working To Learn* and *Work Experience in High School* both offer clear-cut pictures of a new trend which will, very possibly, show the way to a more effective curriculum for many secondary-school youth.

Of these two books, Gold's is by far the more philosophical, although Ivins and Runge fully live up to the promise made in their Preface: "In this volume will be found a concrete and step-by-step explanation of how the school can organize, administer, operate, and evaluate a co-operative work program." This is philosophy in action.

Nevertheless, Gold more thoroughly structures the demand for a new type of education in terms both of other modern progressive tendencies and of the need for a functional approach designed to keep young people in school while, at the same time, offering them something tangible to show for their labors. In five chapters, including "Functionalism in the Elementary School," "The Role of the Secondary School," "Toward a Functional Program," and "Occupational Education," he builds an excellent framework for the introduction of the newer techniques. Indeed, in his first paragraph, he contends that "a virulent skepticism" has sprung up as to the validity of traditional programs, which fail to provide proper training of many of our youth.

Reactions of out-of-school youth to the conventional school, as repeated by Gold, seem particularly pertinent at this point:

"Would you go back to school if you could?" we asked . . .

"Not regular school," was a frequent reply.

We wanted to know why.

"It's like prison."

"They treat you like babies."

"I got to make myself a living. I want to be an auto mechanic. What's French got to do with that?"

"I don't know. It's just dead."

After drawing parallels between occupational patterns abroad and here and discussing such training schools as the Danish Folk Schools, Gandhi's Wardha Scheme, and Labor Schools in Israel, and the American C.C.C., N.Y.A., the Henry Ford Trade School, and Work Camps for Youth, Gold suggests experiences for an occupational course of study and offers a proposed curriculum pattern. Six "cores" are introduced: exploration, agriculture, service occupations, commerce, manufacturing and mining, and "Induction: Special Skill Training." The language arts are not omitted; they are to be inherent in exercises in the context of the cores and of the other resource areas. If justification for this is needed, Gold counters that it can be supplied easily:

Since occupational education is concerned with the chief common denominator of man's activity—his work—it is viewed as the proper content for a "general education" or "common learnings" program of the secondary school.

The heart of Ivins and Runge's volume is Part IV, "Organization and Administration of the Co-operative Work Experience Program," and this represents the greater part of their book, pages 163-441. This probably is as it should be; for, as mentioned earlier, they deal primarily with live situations and buttress their account with excellent data, charts, and diagrams illustrative of distributive education as conducted in many states, especially in the West.

Other sections deal with "Backgrounds and Development of Work Experience," "Need for High School Work Experience," "Work Experience in the Curriculum," and "Potential Opportunities for Further Development in Work Experience." This last heading is particularly fruitful as it offers other forms of work experience than that described directly above. Specifically, these are through in-school experience, part-time employment, and through camping education. Indeed, Ivins and Runge admit:

Many high-school students do not want or need from their work experience learning that is primarily vocational. . . . Consequently there is a clear implication that the in-school, paid or unpaid, type of work experience program should be further investigated or developed.

This point of view is not too far from that of Gold, who is, in this reviewer's opinion, concerned more with "learning" in general (though through actual work contacts) than with vocational education as such.

One other comment concerning the two books may be inserted here. Although Gold has touched many sources and has received much personal reaction in connection with his study, they are invariably dated 1948 or before. It is unfortunate that *Working To Learn* was not published two years ago. On the other hand, Ivins and Runge's book is current; their data extend to the beginning of 1951.

Regardless, however, of the slight difference in point of view or of the lack of contact with 1949 and 1950 in Gold, it can be assumed that newer patterns of secondary education are in the offing. Indeed, they are much needed.

The authors insist on a curriculum which is (in Gold's words) "functional," taking the life-adjustment problems, the social functions, and the persistent life situations [of each individual] and centering them about the major concern of the adolescent [years]—the vocational life which is going to distinguish him as an adult."

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

DAWSON, MILDRED A. *Teaching Language in the Grades: A Guide for Teachers of the Language Arts*. Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, New York: World Book Co., 1951. Pp. x+342. \$3.80.

Developing Democratic Human Relations through Health Education, Physical Edu-

cation and Recreation. First Yearbook, American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation. Washington 6: American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1951. Pp. x+562. \$4.25.

PUNKE, HAROLD H. *Community Uses of Public School Facilities*. New York 27: King's Crown Press, Columbia University, 1951. Pp. 248 (processed). \$3.75.

STOKES, C. NEWTON. *Teaching the Meanings of Arithmetic*. New York 3: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1951. Pp. xii+532. \$4.50.

BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS
AND PUPILS

BETZ, WILLIAM; MILLER, A. BROWN; MILLER, F. BROOKS; MITCHELL, ELIZABETH B.; and TAYLOR, H. CARLISLE. *Everyday General Mathematics*, Book Two. Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1951. Pp. x+438. \$2.60.

HUGHES, GLENN. *A History of the American Theatre, 1700-1950*. New York 19: Samuel French, 1951. Pp. 562. \$5.00.

McMACKIN, FRANK J.; MARSH, JOHN A.; and BATEN, CHARLES E. *The Arithmetic of Better Business*. Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1951. Pp. viii+390. \$2.48.

NEUGARTEN, BERNICE L., and MISNER, PAUL J. *Getting Along in School*. Junior Life Adjustment Booklet. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1951. Pp. 40. \$0.40.

RATHBUN, KENNETH C. "Working Your Way through College." Cambridge 39, Massachusetts: Cavalier Publishing Co., 1951. Pp. 56 (mimeographed). \$1.25.

STENSLAND, PER G., and DENNIS, LARRY. *Keeping Up with the News*. Life Adjustment Booklet. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1951. Pp. 50. \$0.40.

PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM

The American Negro and Civil Rights in 1950. The Journal of Negro Education, Yearbook Number XX, Vol. XX, No. 3. Washington 1: Published for the Bureau of Educational Research, Howard University, by the Howard University Press, 1951. Pp. 249-494. \$2.00.

Annotated List of Books for Supplementary Reading (Kindergarten-Grade 9): 1951-52. Edited by DOROTHY KAY CADWALLADER. New York 38: Children's Reading Service [n.d.]. Pp. 86.

ARMED FORCES INFORMATION AND EDUCATION DIVISION, OFFICE OF THE SECRE-

TARY OF DEFENSE. Armed Forces Talk: No. 381, *The New Draft Law and You*, pp. 16; No. 382, *The New Italy*, pp. 16; No. 383, *Africa Looks Forward*, pp. 16; No. 384, *Why Quit Learning?* pp. 16; No. 385, *Our Neighbors "Down Under,"* pp. 16. Washington 25: Government Printing Office, 1951. \$0.05 each.

BANNING, MARGARET CULKIN. *A New Design for the Defense Decade*. Summarizing the Findings of the Conference on Women in the Defense Decade, Held at the Commodore Hotel, New York City, September 27 and 28, 1951, under the Sponsorship of the American Council on Education. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1951. Pp. 14. \$0.15.

BENNETT, WENDELL C. *Area Studies in American Universities*. Washington 5: Social Science Research Council, 1951. Pp. x+82.

COOKE, W. HENRY. *Peoples of the Southwest: Patterns of Freedom and Prejudice*. New York 10: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1951. Pp. 36. \$0.25.

Developing Discussion in School and Community. Columbus 15, Ohio: Junior Town Meeting League, 1951. Pp. 32.

Discriminations in Higher Education. A Report of the Midwest Educators Conference in Chicago, Illinois, November 3-4, 1950, Sponsored by the Midwest Committee on Discriminations in Higher Education and the Committee on Discriminations in Higher Education of the American Council on Education. Edited by FRANCIS J. BROWN, FLOYD W. REEVES, and RICHARD B. ANLIOT. American Council on Education Studies, Vol. XV. Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 50. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1951. Pp. viii+80. \$1.00.

Education at Mid-Century. Thirty-eighth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings: Joint Meeting Southeastern Convention District of the Pennsylvania State Education Association, April 11-April 14,

1951. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. LII, No. 1. Philadelphia 4: University of Pennsylvania, 1951. Pp. vi+358. \$1.00.
- Emergency Recreation Services in Civil Defense.* New York 10: National Recreation Association, Inc., 1951. Pp. 32.
- Engineering and Physical Science Aptitude Test: Manual.* Prepared under the direction of BRUCE V. MOORE, C. J. LAPP, and CHARLES H. GRIFFIN. New York 18: Psychological Corp., 1951 (revised). Pp. 12.
- The Exceptional Child.* Proceedings of a Special Conference between Members of the Press and a Panel of Authorities under the Auspices of the Child Research Clinic of the Woods Schools, on Tuesday, March 20, 1951, at the Hotel Pierre, New York City. Langhorne, Pennsylvania: Woods Schools, 1951. Pp. 30.
- HARDING, LOWRY W. *Anthology in Educology: Being the First Report from the Archives of the Association for Preservation of Humor in Educological Workers (APHEW to You).* Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1951. Pp. xvi+78. \$1.50.
- HART, LAURANCE. "Comparison of Encyclopedias." Metuchen, New Jersey: Laurance Hart (14 West Walnut Street), 1951 (47th edition). Pp. 1. \$0.25.
- HARTWELL, SAMUEL W., M.D. *A Citizen's Handbook of Sexual Abnormalities and the Mental Hygiene Approach to Their Prevention.* A Report of the Governor's Study Commission on Sex Deviates [State of Michigan]. Washington 8: Public Affairs Press, 1951. Pp. viii+70. \$1.00.
- How Can We Help Get Better Schools?* New York 19: National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools [n.d.]. Pp. 56.
- It Starts in the Classroom: A Public Relations Handbook for Classroom Teachers.* Washington 6: National School Public Relations Association, 1951. Pp. 64. \$1.00.
- KIHSS, PETER. *The UN: How and When It Works.* Headline Series, No. 88. New York 16: Foreign Policy Association, 1951. Pp. 64. \$0.35.
- MCDOWELL, NANCY E. *Your Club Handbook.* Life Adjustment Booklet. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1951. Pp. 50. \$0.40.
- "The Material Resources of Curriculum Laboratories." Curriculum Bulletin No. 1. Storrs, Connecticut: Curriculum Center, School of Education, University of Connecticut, 1951. Pp. iv+38 (mimeographed). \$0.35.
- Money Management: Your Food Dollar.* Chicago 11: Household Finance Corp., 1951. Pp. 36. \$0.05.
- Money Management: Your Health Dollar.* Chicago 11: Household Finance Corp., 1951. Pp. 32. \$0.05.
- Problems in Individual Analysis (Emphasizing Techniques Other than Standardized Tests and Measurements).* Report of a Conference of City School Superintendents, Principals, Directors of Guidance, and Counselors, Held at Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas, July 13-14, 1950. Edited by EMERY GILBERT KENNEDY. Kansas State Teachers College Bulletin, Vol. XLVII, No. 7. Pittsburg, Kansas: Kansas State Teachers College, 1951. Pp. 96.
- RAYNER, S. A. *The Special Vocabulary of Civics.* A.C.E.R. Research Series, No. 65. Melbourne, Australia: Published for the Australian Council for Educational Research by Melbourne University Press, 1951. Pp. x+106.
- RICHEY, ROBERT W., and FOX, WILLIAM H. *A Study of Some Opinions of High School Students with Regard to Teachers and Teaching.* Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XXVII, No. 4. Bloomington, Indiana: Division of Research and Field Services, Indiana University, 1951. Pp. 64. \$0.75.
- ROSS, HELEN. *Fears of Children.* Better Living Booklet. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1951. Pp. 50. \$0.40.

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- SHAW, JOHN H. *The School and Physical Preparedness*. The J. Richard Street Lecture. Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University, 1951. Pp. 36.
- So *You're an Issuing Officer*. Bulletin No. 149. Washington 25: Bureau of Labor Standards, United States Department of Labor, 1951. Pp. 10.
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- VAN RIFER, C. *Helping Children Talk Better*. Better Living Booklet. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1951. Pp. 50. \$0.40.
- WESMAN, ALEXANDER G. *Wesman Personnel Classification Test: Manual*. New York 18: Psychological Corp., 1951 (revised). Pp. 16.
- What Parents Can Do To Help Their Children in Reading*. Compiled and edited by RUSSELL G. STAUFFER. Proceedings of the First Annual Parent Conference on Reading Held at the University of Delaware, December 9, 1950, Vol. I. Newark, Delaware: School of Education, University of Delaware, 1951. Pp. xii+50. \$1.00.
- UNESCO (United States Sales Agent: Columbia University Press, New York 27, New York):
 Monographs on Fundamental Education, V—*The Healthy Village: An Experiment in Visual Education in West China*. Pp. 120.
- INFORMATION (United States Sales Agent: Columbia University Press, New York 27, New York):
 Background Paper No. 63—"United Nations Headquarters." Pp. 44 (mimeographed).
 Background Paper No. 64—"The International Law Commission." Pp. 32 (mimeographed).
 Publication 1951-1-2.—*United Nations Work and Programs for Technical Assistance*. Pp. 40. \$0.15.
 Publication 1951-1-3.—*World Facts and Figures*. Pp. 36. \$0.25.
 Publication 1951-1-8.—*The Price of Peace: A Symposium*. Pp. 54. \$0.25.
- UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION:
 Bulletin 1951, No. 2—*Culoden Improves Its Curriculum* by LUCILLE MCGRAW RICHMOND and EFFIE G. BATHURST. New Enterprises in Education Series. Pp. iv+24. \$0.15.
 Bulletin 1951, No. 3—*Vitalizing Secondary Education*. Report of the First Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth. Pp. vi+106. \$0.30.
 Bulletin 1951, No. 7—*How Children Use Arithmetic* by EFFIE G. BATHURST. The Place of Subjects Series. Pp. 14. \$0.15.
 Bulletin 1951, No. 9—*How Children Learn about Human Rights* by WILHELMINA HILL and HELEN K. MACKINTOSH. Pp. iv+16. \$0.15.
 Bulletin 1951, No. 10—*How Children Learn To Think* by PAUL E. BLACKWOOD. Pp. iv+20. \$0.15.
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